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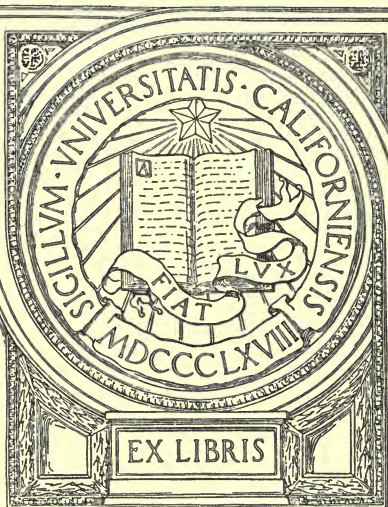


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LATIN

PROSE COMPOSITION

BASED ON CAESAR, NEPOS, AND CICERO

BY

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PREFACE

IN the preparation of this work for the use of schools, an attempt has been made to combine the advantages of the older systematic with the newer discursive method. In the former too much attention was paid to syntax, too little to the author read ; while in the latter the pupil has not been given an opportunity to gain a sufficiently clear idea of Latin usage to help him in his subsequent work. In our attempt to profit by the successful features of both methods, each exercise has been arranged with the following aims : —

1. To give the pupil a comprehensive view of the various ways in which some particular grammatical relation may be expressed.

2. To illustrate these by an exercise based upon a limited portion of the text read, with especial care to introduce only such words and idioms as are to be found in the text.

3. To make each exercise serve also as a review both of topics previously studied and of constructions that have incidentally occurred.

4. To give interest by making the exercises a connected synopsis of the author's work, avoiding in this, however, what might in any possible way be used as a translation.

5. To give such work as will meet the demands of the best private and public schools.

In pursuance of this plan, the Introduction has been divided into Lessons, each of which treats of some specific grammatical topic or group of related ideas as commonly expressed in classical Latin.

This classified statement, expressed in language easily understood and illustrated by one simple example, gives a clear conception of the construction before the pupil is referred to the more complex statement of the grammar. For different forms of expression and further illustrative examples, there has been added to each paragraph the particular reference to various grammars, while the more general references have been placed at the head of each lesson. No attempt has been made to cover all the constructions in Latin, but only such as are commonly needed in secondary school work.

The Lesson may be treated as a special study while that portion of the text on which the Exercise is based is being read, and emphasis should be laid in class work on the topic under consideration. For those who do not care to use the Lesson for special study, the Introduction has been paragraphed for occasional reference.

Although the connected narrative may appear formidable, yet experience with several classes has shown that pupils can readily handle these exercises. They have been graded to the ability as developed, and are intended to bring out the characteristics of the author. They are of such length that the teacher can give a long or a short exercise, according to the ability of his class. The Cicero Exercises are the most complex and general in character, and give a thorough drill in review of the constructions required of preparatory classes. The Caesar and Nepos Exercises may be used as tests, each for the other, the teacher giving the less common words for vocabulary ; while either would give excellent and systematic sight work for a class studying the Cicero section.

We take pleasure in acknowledging our obligations to Mr. Eugene D. Russell, Principal of the Lynn (Mass.) Latin School, for careful examination of proof and valuable criticisms and suggestions.

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LATIN PROSE COMPOSITION

INTRODUCTION

LESSON I

[H. = Harkness' Complete Latin Grammar, 1898. References to Harkness' Standard Latin Grammar are inclosed in parentheses. M. = Mooney. A. = Allen and Greenough. G. = Gildersleeve. B. = Bennett.]

Simple Arrangement of Sentence. — [H. 663-665: 671-680 (560-569). M. 471. A. 343-345. G. 671-683. B. 348-350.]

1. In a Latin sentence the most important word usually stands first. As a rule, this is the subject, while the verb, being unemphatic, is placed near the end of the sentence. The position of the verb **sum** is governed by euphony, but this verb, when used in the sense of *there is*, etc. precedes its subject: **cum Caesar esset in Galliā, erat coniūrātiō**, *when Caesar was in Gaul, there was a conspiracy*. [H. 664: 665 (561). M. 471. A. 344 & c. G. 672-674. B. 348: 349.]

2. Adjectives and Genitives, unless emphatic, follow their nouns. Demonstratives and adjectives of quantity and of number precede their nouns: **duās legiōnēs novās cōscribit**, *he enrolls two new legions*. When a noun is modified by both an adjective and a genitive, the usual order is Adjective, Genitive, Noun: **in commūnī Belgārū conciliō**, *in the common council of the Belgae*. [671, 1 & 4: 675 (565, 2). M. 471. A. 344, a, 2 & b. G. 676 & R. 1, 2 & 4. B. 350, 1 & 4 with d, 5.]

3. Adverbs generally precede the words they modify: **eōs māgnopere cohortātus profectus est**, *after exhorting them earnestly, he set out*. [H. 672-674, 678 (567). M. 471. A. 344, b. G. 677. B. 350, 6.]

4. Conjunctions and interrogatives generally begin their clauses : **cum quaereret quae cīvitātēs in armīs essent**, *when he asked what states were in arms*. [H. 675: 677 (569, III). M. 471. A. 344, *b*. G. 675. B. 350, 5, *a* & 8.]

5. Prepositions regularly precede ; but with a modified noun the order is frequently Modifier, Preposition, Noun : **summā cum laude**, *with highest honors*. [H. 671, 5: 676 (569, II, 3). M. 471. A. 345, *a*. G. 678 & R. 2. B. 350, 7 & *b*.]

6. The words **ferē**, **paene**, **prope**, **autem**, **enim**, **quidem**, **quoque**, **vērō**, and usually **itaque**, never stand first : **hic enim ventus ab septentriōnibus oritur**, *for this wind rises in the north*. [H. 677 (569, III). M. 471. A. 345, *b*. G. 677, R. 1: 679. B. 350, 8.]

Study carefully the author's arrangement of words, and notice why the order varies from the regular arrangement.

LESSON II

Simple Agreements. Relatives. — [H. 387: 388: 393: 394: 396: 399: 404 (362: 363: 368: 371: 438: 439: 445: 460). M. 174: 177-179: 182: 184: 256. A. 173: 176: 177: 182-187: 198: 204. G. 203: 211: 289: 290: 320: 321: 325: 328: 614. B. 166-169: 233-235: 250-254.]

7. A noun denoting the same person or thing as another noun, agrees with it in case. Such a noun may be either an appositive (i.e. in the same part of the sentence) or a predicate noun (i.e. one used to form the predicate with the verb **sum** or a verb of similar meaning): **ad flūmen Axonam**, *to the river Axona*; **Labiēnus erat legātus**, *Labienus was lieutenant*. [H. 393, with 8 & 9 (362: 363). M. 174, 2 & 3: 179. A. 176: 184, with *a* & *b*. G. 211: 320: 321: 325. B. 167: 168 & 2: 169, 1 & 2.]

8. An adjective is put into the same gender, number, and case as the noun it limits: **reliquās legiōnēs in aciē cōstituit**, *he drew up the other legions in line of battle*. [H. 394 (438). M. 178. A. 186, with *a* & *b*. G. 289: 290. B. 234: 235.]

9. A relative agrees with its antecedent in gender and number; the case depends upon the construction of its own clause: **duās legiōnēs quae cōscriptae erant in Galliam mīsit**, *he sent the two legions which had been enrolled into Gaul*. [H. 396: 399 (445 & 2). M. 182, 1 & 5. A. 198. G. 614. B. 250, 1: 251, 1.]

10. A verb and its subject agree in number and person: **castra amplius mīlibus passuum octō in lātitudinem patēbant**, *the camp extended more than eight miles in breadth*. [H. 388 & 1 (460). M. 174, 1. A. 204. G. 211. B. 254, 1 & 2.]



LESSON III

Periphrastic Conjugations. Tenses. — [H. 236: 237: 431: 526-540 (233: 234: 388: 466-473). M. 98: 207: 305-313: 352. A. 129: 147: 232: 276-281: 293, *a* & *b*, 1 & 2: 294. G. 129: 223-247: 251: 355. B. 115: 189, 1: 257-264: 293, 1.]

11. Such English expressions as *Caesar intends* or *is about to do this*, are translated into Latin by using the active periphrastic conjugation: **Caesar hōc factūrus est**, *Caesar intends to do this*. [H. 236 (233). M. 98, 1. A. 293, *a* & *b*, 1 & 2. G. 129: 247. B. 115.]

12. Such English expressions as *Caesar must* or *has to do this* and *this must be done by Caesar* are translated into Latin by using the passive periphrastic conjugation, the agent being expressed by the Dative case: **Caesarī hōc**

faciendum est, *Caesar had to do this*. [H. 237: 431 (234: 388). M. 98, 2: 207. A. 232: 294. G. 251: 355. B. 115: 189, 1.]

13. *Dum*, meaning *while*, takes the Present Indicative, even when referring to past time: **dum haec geruntur, Caesar discesserat**, *while this was going on, Caesar had departed*. [H. 533, 4 (467, III, 4). M. 352. A. 276, e. G. 229, R. B. 293, I.]

14. The Imperfect is used to denote the continuance or repetition of an action in past time; the Perfect, to denote the simple occurrence: **ad eum crēbrī rūmōrēs adferēbantur**, *many reports were brought to him*; **classī Dātim praefēcit**, *he put Datis in command of the fleet*. [H. 534: 537 (468: 469: 471, I & II). M. 306, 1-3: 307. A. 277: 279. G. 231: 239. B. 260, 1 & 2: 262, B.]

15. With *iam*, *iam diū*, *iam dūdum*, the Present often denotes an action begun in past time and continuing in the present; the Imperfect denotes an action continuing in past time, but begun at some previous time: **iam diū cupiō**, *now for a long time I have been desiring*; **iam dūdum cupiēbam**, *I had been desiring for a long time*; **ad mortem tē, Catilīna, dūcī iam prīdem oportēbat**, *long since, Catiline, ought you to have been led to death*. [H. 533, 1: 535, 1 (467, III, 2: 469, II, 2). M. 305, 6: 306, 4. A. 276, a: 277, b. G. 230: 234. B. 259, 4: 260, 4.]

LESSON IV

Uses of the Infinitive. — [H. 70: 415: 606: 607: 613: 614: 617-620: 641: 642 (42, II, 2, N.: 523, I: 532-538.) M. 28, 3: 260-276: 392. A. 29, 2, c: 240, f: 270-272: 275: 288: 336, 1 & A. G. 279-281: 420: 422: 423: 650: 653. B. 15, 3: 270: 325-331.]

16. The Infinitive mood has the qualities of both a verb and a noun. It is a verb because it denotes time

relative to that of the sentence in which it stands, governs the same case as it does in its other moods, is limited by adverbs, and may have a subject, which subject is in the Accusative case. [H. 415: 606 (532: 536). M. 261: 266. A. 240, f: note before 270. G. 279: 420. B. 325.]

17. The Infinitive as a noun is neuter: *trānsīre flūmen erat difficillimum*, *to cross the river was very difficult*. [H. 70 (42, II, 2, N.). M. 28, 3. A. 29, 2, c. G. 422. B. 15, 3.]

18. The Infinitive is regularly used, with its subject Accusative, as the object of verbs which express or imply thought or feeling. This use is called Indirect Discourse, because the quoted thought is not stated in the words of the thinker, but is made a part of the whole sentence: *eōs pulsōs esse dīxeram*, *I had said that these were defeated*; *putat cōnfirmārī rēgnum Persārum ipsīs ūtile esse*, *he thinks that it is to their advantage to strengthen the kingdom of the Persians*. [H. 613: 614: 641: 642 (523, I: 535). M. 268: 392. A. 272: 336, 1. G. 650. B. 331, I & II.]

19. The Infinitive is often used to complete a verbal idea, as in English after *can*, *dare*, etc. This is called the Complementary Infinitive: *subsidia conlocārī nōn poterant*, *reserves could not be stationed*. [H. 607, with 1 & 2 (533). M. 261. A. 271. G. 423. B. 328, 1.]

20. In the complementary Infinitive the Present tense is generally used. In the Infinitive of indirect discourse, the Present tense stands for the Present Indicative, the Future for the Future or the Future Perfect, and the Perfect for the Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect (cf. 148). [H. 617-620 (537). M. 260, 1-3: last part of 261. A. 288, c: 336, A. G. 280, 1, (a): 281, 1 & 2: 653. B. 270. 1 & a-c, 2 & 3.]

LESSON V

Ablative Absolute. — [H. 489: 640 (431: 550). M. 255: 279. A. 255: 290. G. 282: 409. B. 227: 336.]

21. The Ablative Absolute stands unconnected in grammatical construction with the rest of the sentence.

22. Various ideas, as of Time, Cause, Concession, Condition, Previous Action, etc. expressed in English by a clause, may be translated into Latin by the use of the Ablative absolute.

23. The Ablative absolute, though used with the Present, is commonly used where in English the idea is expressed by the Perfect active participle. As there is no Perfect active participle in Latin, the Perfect passive participle in the Ablative absolute construction must be used: **Galliā pācātā, Caesar ad Italiam profectus est, *having subdued Gaul, Caesar set out for Italy.***

24. In deponent verbs, however, the Perfect passive participle, having an active meaning, directly translates the English Perfect active participle, and the Ablative absolute is rarely used: **hostēs adortī fugāvērunt, *having attacked the enemy, they put them to flight.***

NOTE. — Do not use the Ablative absolute when the participle in Latin can agree with either the subject or the object of the predicate: **hostēs impeditōs vīcit, *he defeated the enemy while they were impeded;* ēius flammā perterritī classiārīī manēre nōn audēbant, *terrified by the flame of this, the sailors did not dare remain.***

LESSON VI

Questions and Answers. — [H. 183: 377, 4: 378–380: 511: 650 & 1 (188 & II, 4: 305: 351–353: 454). M. 83: 85: 151: 384–386. A. 210–212. G. 109: 110: 450–459: 462–466: 468–471. B. 90: 162: 300, 4, a.]

25. Questions in Latin are not shown by the order of the words. There should usually be two signs of a direct question: (1) an interrogative word at the beginning; (2) a mark of interrogation (?) at the end.

26. **-ne** is affixed to the most important word — generally to the verb, which then stands first. **-ne** shows merely that a question is asked and does not imply the kind of answer expected: **eratne Miltiadēs Athēniēnsis?** *was Miltiades an Athenian?* [H. 378 & 2 (351, with 1 & 2). M. 385, 1 & 2. A. 210, a. G. 454. B. 162, 2, c).]

27. **Nōnne** (**nōn** + **-ne**) shows that an affirmative answer is expected. **Num** shows that a negative answer is expected: **nōnne Cicerō ōrātor fuit?** *was not Cicero an orator?* **num Cicerō Athēniēnsis erat?** *Cicero was not an Athenian, was he?* [H. 378 (351, 1, N. 2 & 3). M. 385, 3 & 4. A. 210, c. G. 455: 456. B. 162, 2, a) & b).]

28. When an interrogative pronoun or adverb introduces the question, do not use **-ne**, **nōnne**, or **num**: **quem vīdit?** *whom did he see?* **quōmodo Themistoclēs mortuus est?** *how did Themistocles die?*

29. In translating into Latin, for the word *how* in such expressions as *how easily*, *how illustrious*, etc. use **quam**, unless some special interrogative word like **quantus**, *how great*, or **quot**, *how many*, etc. can be used: **quam facile**

Caesar Gallōs vīcit? *how easily did Caesar conquer the Gauls?* **quot hominum interfectī sunt?** *how many men were killed?*

30. An answer in Latin corresponding to *yes* is generally expressed by the repetition of the verb, or some other emphatic word; corresponding to *no*, by such repetition with a negative: **Discessitne Catilīna?** **Discessit.** *Did Catiline depart?* **Yes.** **Rōmaene Miltiadēs habitābat?** **Nōn Rōmae.** *Did Miltiades live at Rome?* **No.** [H. 379 (353, 1 & 2, with N. 3). M. 386. A. 212 & a. G. 471. B. 162, 5, a & b.]

31. In a double question, **utrum** or **-ne** stands with the first part, and an (**annōn** in direct, **necne** in indirect questions, *or not*) at the beginning of the second: **utrum Cicerō an Caesar māior erat?** *was Cicero or Caesar the greater?* [H. 380 & 1: 650 & 1 (353, 1 & 2, with N. 3). M. 385, 5 & N. A. 211. G. 458: 459. B. 162, 4: 300, 4, a.]



LESSON VII

Object Cases — I. Accusative. — [H. 404-406: 409-411 & 2-4: 412: 413: 416, 2: 421 & 1 (371: 373: 374, with 2 & N. 3 & 4: 376: 378, 1 & 2: 381 & N. 1). M. 184: 190-192: 194: 195: 198: 200. A. 237-239: 239, 1 & 2, b & c, with N. 1: 240, a, b & d. G. 330: 331 & R. 1: 333, 1, R. 1 & 2: 333, 2, R.: 334 & R.: 339: 340: 343, 1. B. 172-179, 1: 183.]

32. Many verbs which in English have a direct object in Latin govern not the Accusative case, but the Genitive, Dative, or Ablative: **senātui persuādet,** *he persuades the senate;* **eī nōn placet,** *it does not please him.*

33. The direct object of a transitive verb is in the Accusative: **nūntium mīsit,** *he sent a messenger.* [H. 404: 405 (371). M. 184. A. 237. G. 330. B. 172-176, 1.]

34. A second Accusative, denoting the same person or thing as the direct object, is sometimes used — generally as a predicate Accusative — with verbs of naming, choosing, making, etc.: **Cicerōnem cōsulem creāvērunt**, *they elected Cicero (to be) consul*. [H. 410, with 1 & 2 (373). M. 191. A. 239, 1 & a. G. 340. B. 177, 1 & 2.]

35. An Accusative of the person is sometimes used with the Accusative of the thing after verbs of teaching and asking. But some verbs, such as **petō**, **postulō**, and **quaerō** take an Ablative of the person with a preposition, instead of the Accusative: **mīlitēs bellī ratiōnem docēbat**, *he taught the soldiers the art of war*; **auxilium ā Lacedaemoniīs petvērunt**, *they asked aid of the Lacedaemonians*. [H. 411 & 2-4 (374, 2, N. 3 & 4). M. 192. A. 239, 2 & c, with N. 1. G. 339 & R. 1 & 2. B. 178, 1, a)-e).]

36. Transitive verbs, when compounded with **circum** or **trāns**, may take two Accusatives: **equitēs flūmen trādūxit**, *he led the cavalry across the river*. [H. 413 (376). M. 194. A. 239, 2, b. G. 331 & R. 1. B. 175, 2, a) & 1): 179, 1.]

37. An intransitive verb sometimes takes the Accusative of a noun of similar meaning, generally qualified by an adjective (cf. the English *to live a good life*). This is the Cognate (kindred meaning) Accusative. Often an adjective in the neuter Accusative is thus used substantively: **bonam vītā vīvēbat**, *he lived a good life*; **plūrimū valēbat**, *he had a very great influence*. [H. 409 & 1 (371, II). M. 190. A. 238. G. 333, 1, R. 1: 333, 2, R. B. 176, 2 & 4.]

38. A neuter adjective or pronoun is often used with adverbial force: **quid hōc factum est?** *why was this done?* [H. 416, 2 (378, 1 & 2). M. 195: 198. A. 240, a & b. G. 333, 1, R. 2: 334 & R. B. 176, 3.]

39. The Accusative, generally modified by an adjective, is used in exclamations: **Ō fortunātōs cīvēs!** *O fortunate citizens!* [H. 421 & 1 (381 & N. 1). M. 200. A. 240, d. G. 343, 1. B. 183.]

LESSON VIII

Object Cases — 2. Genitive. Partitive Genitive. — [H. 440, with 2, 5 & N.-444: 449-451: 453-458 (396, III & IV: 397: 399: 406-410). M. 216: 225-230. A. 216-222. G. 363: 367-372: 374: 376-378: 381: 382. B. 200: 201: 204: 206-212.]

40. An Objective Genitive is used with nouns which denote action or feeling: **imperium Galliae**, *the rule of (over) Gaul*. [H. 440, 2 (396, III). M. 216. A. 217. G. 363, 2. B. 200 & 1.]

41. An Objective Genitive is used with adjectives of implied action to define their reference: **coniūrātiōnis memor**, *mindful of the conspiracy*; **hūius coniugiī cupidus Calliās fuit**, *Callias was desirous of this alliance*. [H. 450 & 1: 451: 453 (399, I & II). M. 226, 1 & 2. A. 218, a & b. G. 374, with N. 4 & 5. B. 204, 1.]

42. With verbs of remembering and forgetting, a person used as object is usually put in the Genitive; a thing thus used is put in either the Genitive or the Accusative. Verbs of remembering in the sense of recalling take generally the Accusative: **sociōrum meminit**, *he remembers his allies*; **illam rem recordor**, *I recall that circumstance*. [H. 454 & 1-4: 455 (406, II: 407). M. 227. A. 219 & b. G. 376, with R. 1 & 2. B. 206, 1 & 2: 207.]

43. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting take the Genitive of the Charge or the Penalty: **Miltiadēs prōditiōnis accūsātus est**, *Miltiades was accused of treason*. [H. 456 & 1-4 (409, II: 410, II). M. 228. A. 220. G. 378 & R. B. 208, 1.]

44. Verbs of feeling take the Genitive. The impersonals *miseret*, *paenitet*, *piget*, *pudet*, and *taedet* take the Accusative of the person and the Genitive of the thing. *Rēfert* and *interest* take the Genitive of the person, if not expressed by a personal pronoun, the thing being the subject: *eōs iniūriæ paenitet*, *they repent of their injustice*; *reī pūblicæ rēfert Catilinam discēdere*, *it is for the good of the state that Catiline should depart*. [H. 449, 1: 457 (406-409, I & III). M. 229: 230. A. 221: 222. G. 377: 381: 382. B. 209-211, 1, 2 & 4.]

45. Also note the Partitive Genitive, denoting the whole of which a part is taken. Cardinal numerals often take a partitive Ablative with a preposition instead of the Genitive: *plūrimī Gallōrum superātī sunt*, *very many of the Gauls were overcome*; *septuāgintā ex nāvibus eī dātæ sunt*, *seventy of the ships were given to him*; *Cīmōn satis ēloquentiæ habēbat*, *Cimon was quite eloquent*. [H. 440, 5 & N.-444 (396, IV: 397). M. 225. A. 216 & c. G. 367-372. B. 201, 1, with a & 2.]

LESSON IX

Object Cases — 3. Dative. — [H. 423-427: 429: 432: 434: 435 (384-386: 389: 391). M. 202: 205: 208: 209: 211: 214. A. 225-229: 234: 235. G. 345-347: 350: 351: 353: 359. B. 187: 188: 192.]

46. The Dative is used with many verbs which appear in English to be transitive. Carefully examine the lists in the references: *mihi persuādet*, *he persuades me*. [H. 426, with 1 & 2 (385). M. 205. A. 227. G. 346. B. 187, II, a, with N.]

47. The Dative of the indirect object (i.e. of the person or thing indirectly affected by the action) is used (1) with a

transitive verb, together with the direct object; or (2) with an intransitive verb, without a direct object: **Themistoclēs reī pūblicae sē dedit**, *Themistocles devoted himself to public affairs*; **Cicerōnī respondet**, *he replies to Cicero*. [H. 423: 424 & I: 425 (384, I & II). M. 205. A. 225: 226. G. 345: 346: 350, 2. B. 187, I & II.]

48. The Dative is used with many verbs, both transitive and intransitive, compounded with the prepositions **ad**, **ante**, **con**, **in**, **inter**, **ob**, **post**, **prae**, **prō**, **sub**, **super**, and sometimes **circum**. Consult the lexicon freely for these compounds: **Gallīs bellum inferēbat**, *he was making war upon the Gauls*. [H. 429 & 3 (386). M. 202. A. 228. G. 347. B. 187, III, with I & 2.]

49. The Dative (especially of a person) is used with many verbs of depriving, instead of the Ablative of separation (cf. 53): **scūtum militī detrāxit**, *he snatched the shield from the soldier*. [H. 427: 429, 2 (385, 2: 386, 2). M. 211. A. 229. G. 345 & R. I: 347, R. 5. B. 188, 2, d.]

50. The Dative is used with many adjectives, especially those of fitness, nearness, and likeness: **Alcibiadī pār nēmō in cīvitāte pōnēbātur**, *no one in the state was considered Alcibiades' equal*. [H. 434 & 2 (391, I). M. 214. A. 234, a. G. 359. B. 192, I & 2.]

51. The Dative is often used when it refers to the sentence as a whole, rather than to any one word, and denotes the person to whose interest the action occurs. This is the Dative of reference: **mihi in animum vēnit**, *it came to my attention*. [H. 425, 2 & 4: 432 (384, 4: 389). M. 208: 209. A. 235, with a & b. G. 350: 351: 353. B. 188, I & 2, b.]

LESSON X

Object Cases — 4. Ablative. Separation, Source, Specification, Price. — [H. 461-465: 467-469: 477: 478: 480 (413-415: 421: 422: 424). M. 234: 236-238, 1: 251-253. A. 243: 244: 249: 252: 253. G. 390: 395: 397: 404: 406: 407. B. 214: 215: 218, 1 & 2: 225: 226.]

52. The Ablative is used with *ūtor*, *fruor*, *fungor*, *potior*, *vescor*, and their compounds: *quō usque abūtēre patientiā nostrā*, *how far wilt thou abuse our patience?* [H. 477, I (421, I). M. 253. A. 249. G. 407. B. 218, 1.]

53. The Ablative of separation without a preposition is used with verbs of freeing, removing, needing, and depriving. Compounds of *ab*, *dē*, and *ex* generally repeat the preposition with the Ablative when expressing motion or separation. Consult the lexicon freely for these words: *metū liberātī sunt*, *they were relieved of (from) their fear*; *Themistoclēs ē cīvitātē ēiectus est*, *Themistocles was banished from the state*. [H. 461-465 (413: 414). M. 236: 237. A. 243. G. 390, 1 & 2. B. 214, & 1-3.]

54. Source is expressed by the Ablative with a preposition, but with participles of birth and origin the preposition may be omitted: *Belgae ab extrēmīs Galliae finibus oriuntur*, *the country of the Belgians begins at (from) the extreme borders of Gaul*; *nātus rēge*, *the son of a king*. [H. 467: 469 (413: 415 & II). M. 234. A. 244 & a. G. 395. B. 215.]

55. The Ablative is used with the nouns *opus* and *ūsus*, *need*: *virtūte opus erat*, *there was need of courage*. [H. 477, III (414, IV). M. 252. A. 243, e. G. 406. B. 218, 2.]

56. The Ablative is used to denote in what particular an expression is to be regarded as true: *celeritātē superā-*

bant, they excelled in swiftness (not in strength or prudence). [H. 480 (424). M. 238, I. A. 253. G. 397. B. 226.]

57. The Ablative is used to denote price and definite value: **sēstertium quīnque mīlibus eum corrūpit, he bribed him with 5000 sesterces.** [H. 478 (422). M. 251. A. 252. G. 404. B. 225.]

LESSON XI

Passives. — [H. 404, 2: 410, I: 411, I: 413: 426, 3: 468: 518: 611 (373, 2: 374, I: 376, N.: 384, II, 5: 415, I, 2: 464: 465: 534, I, with N. I & 2). M. 174, 3: 184, N. I: 193: 205, N.: 247, I & 2: 274. A. 146, *d*: 177, *a*: 230: 237, *a*: 239, I, *a*, N. 2: 239, 2, *b*, N. 2: 239, *c*, N. 2: 246: 248, *c*: 330, *b*, I & 2: 330, *c*. G. 206: 214: 216: 217: 251, 2: 339, 3 & N. 4: 340, R. I: 346, R. I: 401: 528, I & 2. B. 177, 3: 178, 2 & *a*: 179, 3: 187, II, *b*: 216: 256: 332.]

The following changes (58–62) occur in passing from the active to the passive construction: —

58. The direct object of the active voice becomes the subject of the passive, while the subject of the active becomes either the Ablative of agent with *ā* or *ab*, or the Ablative of means without a preposition.

Active: **Aquītānī Valerium interfēcērunt, the Aquitanians killed Valerius.**

Passive: **Valerius ab Aquītānīs interfectus est, Valerius was killed by the Aquitanians.**

[H. 404, 2: 468: 518 (415, I, 2: 464). M. 184, N. I: 247, I & 2. A. 177, *a*: 237, *a*: 246: 248, *c*. G. 214: 216: 401. B. 216.]

59. Verbs of creating, calling, etc. change both object Accusatives of the active to Nominatives.

Active: **Cicerōnem cōsulem creāvērunt, they elected Cicero consul.**

Passive : **Cicerō cōsul creātus est**, *Cicero was elected consul*.
[H. 410, 1 (373, 2). M. 174, 3. A. 239, 1, a, N. 2. G. 340, R. 1. B. 177, 3.]

60. Verbs of asking, demanding, etc. may retain one Accusative, usually that of the thing asked, demanded, etc.; but few verbs of this class are used in the Passive.

Active : **Aristīdēn sententiam rogāvērunt**, *they asked Aristides his opinion*.

Passive : **Aristīdēs sententiam rogātus est**, *Aristides was asked his opinion*.

[H. 411, 1 (374, 1). M. 193. A. 239, c, N. 2. G. 339, 3 & N. 4. B. 178, 2 & a.]

61. Verbs which in the active govern the Dative must be used impersonally in the passive, while the Dative is retained.

Active : **nāvibus nocēbant**, *they injured the ships*.

Passive : **nāvibus nocēbātur**, *the ships were injured*.

[H. 426, 3 (384, II, 5). M. 205, N. A. 230. G. 208, 2 : 217 : 346, R. 1.
B. 187, II, b.]

62. Verbs of saying, thinking, etc. used in the passive are usually personal in the Present, Imperfect, and Future, and impersonal in the tenses formed on the Perfect stem. These verbs in the second or passive periphrastic conjugation are impersonal. **Iubeō** and **vetō** are always personal in the passive.

Active : **putāmus Cicerōnem māximum ōrātōrem Rōmānum fuisse**, *we think that Cicero was the greatest Roman orator*.

Passive : **Cicerō māximus ōrātor Rōmānus fuisse putātur**, *Cicero is thought to have been the greatest Roman orator* ; **putātum est Cicerōnem māximum ōrātōrem fuisse**, *it was thought that Cicero was the greatest orator*.

[H. 611 (534, 1, with N. 1 & 2). M. 274. A. 330, b, 1 & 2 : 330, c. G. 528, 1 & 2. B. 332, a-d & N.]

Caution. — Many verbs intransitive in Latin are transitive in English, and so in English may be used personally in the passive. This, however, cannot be done with their Latin equivalents (see 61): *the slave was spared*, *servō par-citum est*.

LESSON XII

Possession: Genitive, Dative, Adjective, Pronoun. —

[H. 348: 353: 430: 439, with 3 & 4: 440, I with N. 2: 501-503 & I: 504 (330: 331: 387: 395, N. 2: 396, I: 448: 449 & I). M. 163, 2, 5 & 6: 164: 212: 217: 433: 434. A. 99, *a*: 164, *c*, *d* & *h*: 190: 195 & I: 196: 197 & *a*, I: 214, *a* & *c*: 231. G. 182, 5 & 7: 309: 349: 362: 364: 366. B. 151: 152: 190: 195: 198: 242-244: 247, 2: 354, 4: 359, I.]

63. Possession is generally expressed by the Genitive: *Athēniēnsium in colōniam missus est*, *he was sent into a colony of the Athenians*. [H. 439: 440, I (396, I). M. 217, I & 2. A. 214, *a* & *c*. G. 362 & R. 1-3: 366. B. 195: 198.]

64. Instead of the Genitive of personal pronouns, the possessive adjectives are used, agreeing with the thing possessed in gender, number, and case. In the third person note the difference between the use of *suus* (reflexive) and the Genitive of *is*, *ea*, *id*. *Suus* is an adjective and agrees, while *is*, *ea*, *id* is a pronoun and is used in the Genitive case: *nostrī librī*, *our books*; *suīs cōpiīs eōrum castra adortus est*, *with his forces he attacked their camp*. [H. 440, I, N. 2: 501-503, I (448: 449, I, I)). M. 433: 434. A. 99, *a*: 195 & I: 196, *a*, I: 197 & *a*, I. G. 309: 362, R. I: 364. B. 243, I & *a*: 244, I & II: 247, 2.]

65. Derivative adjectives are sometimes used to denote possession: *Pompēiānus*, *of Pompey*; *aliēnus*, *belonging to another (alius)*. [H. 348-353 (330: 331: 395, N. 2). M. 163, 2, 5 & 6: 164. A. 164, *c*, *d* & *h*: 190. G. 182, 5 & 7: 362, with R. I & 2. B. 151: 152, 1-3.]

66. Possession may be expressed by the Dative of the possessor with the verb **sum**, having the thing possessed as the subject: **Thrasybŭlō erat corōna, facta duābus virgulīs oleāginīs**, *Thrasybulus had a crown, made of two olive branches*. [H. 430 (387). M. 212. A. 231. G. 349. B. 190.]

67. With the Genitive, the possessor is made emphatic; with the Dative the idea of possession is more prominent; **habeō** and similar verbs add the idea of holding or keeping: **Caesaris exercitus**, *Caesar's army*; **Caesarī exercitus erat**, *Caesar had an army*; **Caesar exercitum habēbat**, *Caesar had (and kept) an army*. [H. 430 (387, footnote 3). M. 212, N. 1. A. 231, R. G. 349, R. 2 & 3. B. 359, 1.]

LESSON XIII

Description — By Phrase. — [H. 393: 437: 439: 440, 3: 448, with 1 & 4: 467: 470: 473, 2 (362: 363: 393: 395: 396, V: 404: 405: 415, III: 419, II & III, 2). M. 174, 3: 179: 215: 221–224: 235: 246. A. 184: 185: 213–215 & N.: 244: 251 & N.: 252, *a* & *b*. G. 288: 320: 321: 325: 360: 365: 379: 380: 400. B. 167–169: 197: 203: 224.]

68. To describe a noun in English, we may use such expressions as *a brave consul*; *a consul of great bravery*; *the consul, a brave man*; *the consul is a brave man*. So in Latin there may be used an adjective, a descriptive Genitive or Ablative, an appositive or a predicate noun.

69. The Genitive of description is always qualified by an adjective: **opus summī labōris**, *a task of very great labor*. [H. 440, 3 (396, V & N. 1). M. 222. A. 215 & N. G. 365. B. 203, with 1 & 5.]

70. A Genitive of material is sometimes used, instead of the more common Ablative with a preposition: **ānulus**

aurī, a ring of gold; more usually, *mēnsa ē lignō*, a table of (from) wood. [H. 440, 3: 470 (396, V: 415, III). M. 221: 235. A. 214, e: 244. G. 368. B. 197.]

71. A descriptive Genitive of measure is often used: *iter mille passuum*, a journey of a mile. [H. 440, 3 (396, V). M. 223. A. 215, b. G. 365, R. 2. B. 203, 2 & 5.]

72. The Genitive is used to denote indefinite value (cf. 57): *māgnī interest*, it is of great importance; *in bellō Conōnis opera māgnī fuit*, in the war Conon's assistance was valuable. [H. 440, 3: 448, with 1 & 4 (396, V: 404: 405). M. 224. A. 252, with a & b. G. 379: 380, 1 & 2. B. 203, 3 & 4.]

73. The Ablative of description is qualified by an adjective or a genitive: *Gallī erant māgnō corpore*, the Gauls were of great stature. [H. 473, 2 (419, II). M. 246. A. 251 & N. G. 400. B. 224 & 1-3.]

74. For description the Genitive and the Ablative are often used without distinction; but generally the Genitive describes the essential qualities; the Ablative, the physical. [H. 473, 2, N. 1 (419, III, 2). M. 246, N. A. 215, N.: 251, a. G. 400, R. 1. B. 224, 3.]

75. Compare the Ablative of description with the Ablative of specification (56): (1) a man of great courage; (2) a man great in courage. Note that in (1) the adjective directly qualifies the describing noun and the descriptive Ablative is used; in (2) the adjective directly qualifies the noun described and the Ablative of specification is used: *vir summā virtūte*; *vir summus virtūte*.

For the order and agreement of an adjective, see 2 and 8.

For description by appositive and predicate noun, see 7.

LESSON XIV

Description — By Clause. — [H. 396, with 2 & N. : 399 : 510 : 524 & 1 : 589 & I : 591, 1, 5 & 7 (445 & 4 : 453 : 475, II, 1 : 503). M. 182 : 380 : 383 : 448 : 450 : 455. A. 197, 5 : 198–201 : 320. G. 610 : 612–616 : 621 : 624 : 631. B. 250, 1–4 : 251, 1–6 : 271 : 282, 3 : 283, 1 & 2 : 312, 1.]

76. A noun may be described not only as in the previous lesson, but also by a relative clause : *the consul, who is a brave man ; a consul who is a brave man*. In the first example, where some particular consul is in mind, in Latin the Indicative is used ; in the second example, where the antecedent is less definite, the Subjunctive is generally used.

77. A relative clause regularly takes the Indicative, unless there is some clearly defined reason to the contrary. The Indicative is the mood of fact, and is used in all relative clauses which simply state facts, and where the antecedents are definite without the relative clause : *cōnsul quī fortis vir est, the consul, who is a brave man*. [H. 524 & 1 : 589 & I (475, II, 1). M. 380. A. Remarks preceding 316. G. 624. B. 312, 1.]

78. A subjunctive of characteristic is used in a relative clause, which adds an essential quality to an antecedent otherwise too indefinite for clear understanding. This is especially common with such words and expressions as *ūnus, sōlus, dīgnus, indīgnus, aptus, idōneus, sunt quī (there are some who), quī sunt quī (who are there who?) : sōlus erat quī nōn fugeret, he was the only one who did not flee*. [H. 591, 1, 5 & 7 (503, I & II). M. 383. A. 320, with *a, b & f*. G. 631, with 1, 2 & 3. B. 282, 3 : 283, 1 & 2.]

REMARKS ON THE USE OF RELATIVES

79. 1. The relative cannot be omitted in Latin: **homō quem vīdī**, *the man I saw*.

2. While the relative agrees with its antecedent in gender and number, it agrees rather with a predicate noun in its own clause than with an antecedent of different gender or number from the predicate noun: **Liger, quod est Galliae flūmen**, *the Loire, which is a river of Gaul*.

3. The antecedent may come in the relative clause. This regularly happens if the relative clause comes before the natural position of the antecedent: **quam quisque fortunam habet, hāc fruātur**, *let each enjoy what fortune he has*.

4. The relative often stands first in a sentence, referring to something that has preceded. In English, a demonstrative pronoun is more common with a conjunction or conjunctive adverb: **quae cum ita sint**, *now since these things are so*.



LESSON XV

Means and Agency. — [H. 334–336: 431 & 1: 467: 468: 476: 477: 638, 1 (326, 1: 327, 2 & 3: 388: 415, 1 & N.: 418: 420: 421, II: 453, 2, N. 2: 549, 1 & 4). M. 161, 2 & 5: 207: 247: 250. A. 162: 163, *c* & *d*: 201, *b*: 232 & N.: 246 & N.: 246, *R.* & *b*: 248, *c*. G. 181, 1 & 6: 355: 401: 405, N. 3. B. 147, 1 & 4: 189: 216: 218, with 7 & 8: 337, 2, *d*.]

80. Means and agency are often expressed in English by the use of the same preposition. In translating into Latin, the distinction between means and agency must be clearly drawn.

81. Means or instrument is expressed by the Ablative without a preposition. It is also used with verbs and

adjectives of fullness and plenty : *gladiō sē dēfendēbat*, *he was defending himself by (means of) his sword*. [H. 476: 477, II (420: 421, II). M. 247, 1: 250. A. 248, c, 1 & 2. G. 401 & R.: 405, N. 3. B. 218 & 8.]

82. The agent of a passive verb is expressed by the Ablative with *ā* or *ab*. This agent is generally personal and voluntary : *ab Dionysīō expulsus est*, *he was expelled by Dionysius*. [H. 467: 468 (415, I). M. 247, 2. A. 246 & R. G. 401. B. 216 & 1.]

83. If the person is regarded as a means rather than the real agent, *per* with the Accusative is used ; Caesar also uses the Ablative without a preposition : *Caesar per lēgātōs certior factus est*, *Caesar was informed by (means of) ambassadors*. [H. 468, 3 (415, I, I, N. I). M. 247, 3. A. 246, b. G. 401.]

84. With the passive periphrastic conjugation, the agent is expressed by the Dative (12). If the verb governs also an object Dative, the agent is expressed by the Ablative with the preposition when confusion would otherwise arise : *nōbīs Catilīna iam diū pertimēscendus est*, *we have now for a long time been obliged to fear Catiline* ; *ab imperātōre eī parcelandum est*, *the general ought to spare him*. [H. 431, with 1 & 3, N. (388 & N.). M. 207 & N. 1. A. 232 & N. G. 355 & R. B. 189, 1 with a & 2.]

LESSON XVI

Manner and Accompaniment. — [H. 304-310: 473 (1, 3 & N.), 474, 2, & N. 1 (303-305: 419, I & III, with footnote 3: 419, III, 1 & N.). M. 148-151: 244: 245. A. 148: 248 & R.: 248, a & N.: 248, b: 253, N. G. 91: 92: 392: 399: 439. B. 157: 220-222 & 1.]

85. The manner in which an action is done may be expressed by the Ablative with *cum*. If a limiting adjective or Genitive is used, *cum* may be omitted : *cum cūrā castra mūniēbantur*, *the camp was being carefully (with*

care) *fortified*; *parī modō Epaminōndās superābat omnēs in cēterīs artibus*, *in like manner Epaminondas surpassed all in the other arts*. [H. 473, 3 & N. (419, III, with footnote 3 & N. 2). M. 245. A. 248 & R.: 253, N. G. 399. B. 220 & I: 221.]

86. Accompaniment also is expressed by the Ablative with *cum*. *Cum* may be omitted under the same conditions as in 85, especially in military expressions. Verbs of contention and similar words take the Ablative of accompaniment: *sēcum aurum habēbat*, *he had the gold with him*; *omnibus suīs secūtus est*, *he followed with all his men*; *Catilīna cum cīvibus certāvit*, *Catiline fought with his fellow-citizens*. [H. 473, 1: 474, 2, & N. 1 (419, I & III, 1). M. 244. A. 248, with *a* & N.: 248, *b*. G. 392 & R. B. 222 & I.]

87. Manner is frequently expressed by an adverb, especially when not qualified: *celeriter prōgressus est*, *he advanced quickly* (or *with swiftness*). [H. 304: 306: 307: 309: 310 (303: 305, V). M. 148-151. A. 148. G. 91: 92: 439. B. 157.]

LESSON XVII

Comparison. — [H. 159: 311: 471: 479: 497-499: 516, 3: 591, 6 (170: 306: 417: 423: 440: 444: 459, 2: 503, II, 3). M. 67-71: 239: 248: 383, 3: 423: 426-429. A. 89-93: 192, with *a* & *b*: 193: 247 & *a-d*: 250: 320, *c*: 332, *b*: 336, *c*, N. 2. G. 86-89: 93: 291, R. 2: 296-303: 398: 403: 439: 631, 3 & R.: 638-644. B. 71-77: 217: 223: 240: 241: 283, 2, *a*: 284, 4: 341, I, *c*).]

88. As in English, the comparative degree is used in comparing two objects, the superlative in comparing more than two. [H. 498 (444). M. 67: 426. A. 192: 193. G. 300.]

89. When both objects compared would naturally be in the Nominative or the Accusative, the adverb *quam*, *than*, may be omitted and the second object put in the Ablative

case. When **quam** is used, the objects compared must be in the same case: **Caesar erat Pompēiō fēlicior**, *Caesar was more successful than Pompey*; **nōn minus illā ōrātiōne quam Leutricā pūgnā**, *no less by that speech than by the battle at Leuctra*. [H. 471, with 1 & 3 (417 & 1, with N. 1). M. 239, 1 & 2. A. 247 & a. G. 296 & R. 1: 398. B. 217, 1 & 2.]

90. With **amplius**, **plūs**, **minus**, and **longius**, even when **quam** is omitted, an expression of measure may be used without change in case: **amplius decem diēs obsessiōnem sustinēbant**, *for more than ten days they endured the siege*. [H. 471, 4 (417, 1, N. 2). M. 239, 3. A. 247, c. G. 296, R. 4. B. 217, 3.]

91. When adjectives or adverbs are compared, both generally have the form of the comparative degree; but **magis**, *more*, with positive forms is also used: **audācius quam prūdentius**, *more boldly than wisely*; **miser magis quam improbus**, *(a man) unfortunate rather than wicked*. [H. 159 & 1: 499 & 1 (444, 2). M. 429. A. 192, with a & b. G. 299. B. 74: 240, 4.]

92. To show by how much one object compared differs from the other, the Ablative of degree (measure) of difference is used: **multō magis hōc timeō**, *much the more do I fear this*. [H. 471, 10: 479 (417, 2: 423). M. 248. A. 250. G. 403. B. 223.]

93. If the second object compared is expressed by a clause, **quam**, **quam ut**, or **quam quī** with the Subjunctive is used: **omnia faciēbat quam (ut) coniūrātiōnī sē adiungeret**, *he did everything rather than join the conspiracy*. [H. 591, 6 (503, II, 3). M. 383, 3. A. 320, c: 332, b: 336, c, N. 2. G. 631, 3 & R. B. 283, 2, a: 284, 4.]

94. Note also the following peculiar uses:—

I. **Alius** followed by **āc** (**atque**), *than*. [H. 471, 6: 516, 3 (459, 2). A. 247, d. G. 643. B. 341, 1, c.]

2. **Dictō**, etc., used instead of a clause. [H. 471, 8 (417, N. 5). M. 239, 1. A. 247, *b*. G. 398, N. 1. B. 217, 4.]

3. **Summus**, **medius**, etc. used to express what part of an object is meant. [H. 497, 4 (440, 2, N. 1 & 2). M. 423. A. 193. G. 291, R. 2. B. 241, 1.]

4. **Quam** with superlatives denoting highest possible degree. [H. 159, 2 (170, 2, (2)). A. 93, *b*. G. 303 & R. 1. B. 240, 3.]

LESSON XVIII

Relations of Place. — [H. 307: 308: 417 & 3-419: 461: 462: 476: 483-485: 491 (305, I-III: 379: 380: 412: 425-428). M. 151: 196: 199: 233: 240: 241, 1 & 3: 242: 247, N. 1. A. 149, *a*: 254: 257: 258, entire. G. 110, II, 1: 335: 337: 385: 386: 390: 391: 401, R. 6: 411: 611, R. 1. B. 17, 1: 21, 2, *c*): 25, 5: 181: 182, 1-3: 218, 3: 219, 1 & *a*: 228 & 1, *a-c*: 229, with 1 & 2: 232.]

95. Place Whither is expressed by the Accusative with a preposition, usually **ad** or **in**; Place Whence, by the Ablative with a preposition, usually **ab**, **dē**, or **ex**; Place Where, by the Ablative with the preposition **in**.

ad urbem pervēnit, *he arrived at (to) the city*; **ex urbe exiit**, *he departed from the city*; **in urbe adhūc remanent**, *they still remain in the city*. [H. 418: 461: 483: 491, I (380, I: 412, I: 425, I: 427). M. 199 & N. 4: 233, 1: 240. A. 254: 258 & *c*. G. 337: 385: 390. B. 182, 2 & 3: 228: 229 & 2.]

96. With names of Towns and with **domus** and **rūs** the preposition is omitted, except when the idea of neighborhood is to be expressed: **Rōmā exiit**, *he departed from Rome*; **ad Rōmam profectus est**, *he set out for (the neighborhood of) Rome*. [H. 418 & 4: 419, 1: 462 & 2-4: 491, II, 1 & 2 (380, II, with 1 & 2: 412, II, with 3 & N.: 425, II: 426: 428, I & II). M. 199 & 1: 199, 2, with N. 1 & 2: 241, 1 & 3. A. 258, *a*, with N. 1 & 2: 258, *b*, with N. 2 & 3. G. 337 & R. 4: 386 & R. 2: 391 & R. 1. B. 182, 1 & 3: 228, 1, *a-c*: 229, 1 & 2.]

97. To express Place Where with names of towns of the first or second declension, and with **domus** and **rūs**, a special form, the Locative, is used.

The Locative ends, in the first declension singular, in **ae**; in the second declension singular in **ī**; in the plural of both these declensions in **īs**.

Zamae Hannibal victus est, *Hannibal was conquered at Zama*; **Athēnīs vivēbat Thēseus**, *Theseus lived at Athens*. [H. 483: 484, 1 & 2, with N. 1 & 2: 491, II & 3 (425, II, with 3, 1) & 2): 428, III). M. 29, 2: 242. A. 258, c, 2 & d. G. 411. B. 21, 2, c): 25, 5: 228, 1, a): 232, with 1 & 2.]

98. Many verbal ideas take an Ablative of Place Where, without a preposition. Examples of such are **nītor**, **stō**, **fīdō**, **contentus**, and **frētus**: **insidiīs nīsus est**, *he relied upon an ambushade*. [H. 476, 1 & 3 (425, II, 1, 1), N.). M. 247, N. 1. A. 254, b, 1 & 2. G. 401, R. 6. B. 218, 3: 219, 1 & a.]

99. These relations are often expressed by the adverbs of place. [H. 307, 2-5 (305, I-III). M. 151. A. 149, a. G. 110, II, 1: 611, R. 1.]

LESSON XIX

Relations of Time — By Phrase. — [H. 308, 1: 310: 417: 440, 3: 486-489, 1: 638, 1, (305, IV & N. 2, 2): 379: 429-431, 1: 549, 1). M. 151: 197: 243: 249: 255, 1. A. 149, b: 255, d, 1: 256: 259, a-d: 292. G. 110, II, 2: 336: 393: 394: 403 & N. 4: 409: 410: 665: 670. B. 181: 203, 2: 223: 227, 2, a): 230: 231: 337, 2, a: 357, 1.]

100. The Time When the action occurred is expressed by the Ablative, usually with some modifier. The preposition **in** is regularly used with numerals, in marking the period of life, and when the Time Within Which is emphasized:

hōc tempore cōsul creātus est, *at this time he was elected consul*; **in nocte māgnae cōpiae pervēnerant**, *in the night great forces had arrived*. [H. 486: 487, with 1 & 2 (429, with 1 & 2). M. 243. A. 256 & a. G. 393 & R. 5: 394. B. 230, with 1-3: 231.]

101. Time During Which is expressed by the Accusative, sometimes intensified by the use of **per**, *through*: **illud tempus Caesar in Galliā erat**, *during that time Caesar was in Gaul*. [H. 417 & 1 (379 & 1). M. 197: 243 & N. A. 256, with a & b. G. 336. B. 181, 1 & 2.]

Compare the descriptive Genitive of measure (71), which is often used to express measure or duration of time. [H. 440, 3 (396, V). M. 223. A. 215, b. G. 365, R. 2. B. 203, 2.]

102. Time Before or After an action has either the Ablative of degree of difference or the Accusative of extent: **multis ante diēbus** or **multos diēs ante**, *many days before*. [H. 479, 3: 488, 1 & 2 (423, N. 2: 430 & footnote 3). M. 249. A. 259, d. G. 403, N. 4. B. 223: 357, 1.]

103. 1. The preceding relations of time are often expressed by adverbs. [H. 308 & 1 (305, IV & N. 2, 2)). M. 151. A. 149, b. G. 110, II, 2. B. 157.]

2. The Ablative absolute (21-24) is often used instead of a temporal clause. [H. 489 & 1 (431, 1). M. 255, 1. A. 255, d, 1. G. 409: 410: 665. B. 227, 2, a).]

3. For special expressions of time, see H. 486, 1: 487, 1 & 2: 488 (429, 2). M. 243. A. 259, a-c. G. 394. B. 230, 2 & 3: 231, 1.]

LESSON XX

Relations of Time — Dates. — [H. 754-756 (641-644). M. 498-506. A. 259, e: 376. G. Appendix, Roman Calendar. B. 371, 1-7: 372.]

104. The Roman year originally began in March. The names of the months were **Iānuārius**, **Februārius**, **Mārtius**,

Aprīlis, Māius, Iūnius, Quīntilis (Iūlius), Sextilis (Augustus), September, Octōber, November, December. These words are adjectives, and agree with **Kalendae, Nōnae, or Idūs.**

105. 1. In reckoning dates, the Romans counted backwards from three points—the **Nōnae** and the **Idūs** of the same month, and the **Kalendae** of the month to come.

2. The **Nōnae** were usually the fifth day of the month and the **Idūs** the thirteenth—except that in March, May, July, and October, they were the seventh and the fifteenth respectively. The **Kalendae** were always the first: **Idibus Mārtiis, on the 15th of March; Nōnīs Aprīlibus, on the 5th of April; Kalendīs Sēptembribus, the 1st of September.**

106. The Roman system of counting both ends of a series gives the following important rules for finding the number of days before the Nones or Ides of the same month, or Kalends of the following month.

1. If the English date is between the Kalends and Nones or between the Nones and Ides, add one to the day on which the Nones or the Ides fall in that month, and then subtract the English date. Note examples: English date, *February second* (between first and fifth); hence add 1 to 5 = 6; subtract English date, $6 - 2 = 4$; therefore **ante diem quartum Nōnās Februāriās** or **a. d. IV. Nōn. Feb.** English date, *May ninth*; $1 + 15 = 16$; $16 - 9 = 7$; hence **ante diem septimum Idūs Māiās.**

2. If the English date is after the Ides, add two to the number of days in the month and then subtract the English date: *December twenty-fifth*; $2 + 31 = 33$; $33 - 25 = 8$; hence **ante diem octāvum Kalendās Iānuāriās.**

3. Note that the day before one of these points of reckoning was always **prīdiē** (never **secundus**): **prīdiē Nōnās Iūliās**, *the sixth of July*.

4. For peculiarities of construction in dates, see H. 754, III, 3 (642, III, 4). M. 501. A. 259, *e*. G. Appendix, Par. 4. B. 371, 6.

LESSON XXI

Relations of Time — By Clause. — [H. 600–605: 683, 2 & N. (518–521). M. 343–354. A. 322–325: 327: 328. G. 559–585. B. 287–289: 291–293.]

107. In temporal clauses the Indicative is generally used to define the time of the main clause; the Subjunctive to describe the time by giving some circumstance. But the construction used with the different temporal conjunctions in the text should be carefully noted.

108. **Postquam, cum prīimum, ubi, ut, and simul atque** are regularly followed by the Perfect Indicative, for these temporal conjunctions make the time definite: **Catilīna postquam sē compressum cōgnōvit, ex urbe exiit**, *after Catiline knew himself to be foiled, he left the city*. [H. 602 (518). M. 343. A. 324. G. 561. B. 287, 1.]

109. With **cum** temporal referring to past time, the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive is generally used. To denote a definite past time the Perfect Indicative may be used. In referring to present or future time, **cum** is followed by the Indicative: **cum illī sē dēfenderent, hostēs plūrēs convēnērunt**, *while they were defending themselves, the enemy assembled in greater numbers*; **cum vēnerit, vōbiscum ibō**, *when he comes (shall have come) I will go with*

you; *cum summa trādita esset Perdiccae tuenda, Eumenī Cappadocia data est, when the sovereignty had been intrusted to the charge of Perdiccas, Cappadocia was given to Eumenes.* [H. 600, I & II, with 1 (521). M. 344-348. A. 325, entire. G. 579: 580: 585. B. 288, 1, A & B: 289.]

110. *Antequam* and *priusquam* have the same constructions as *cum* temporal: *prius vērō quam equitātus noster perveniret, peditēs hostēs vīcerant, but before our cavalry arrived, the infantry had defeated the enemy.* [H. 605 (520). M. 349-351. A. 327 & a. G. 574: 577. B. 291: 292.]

111. *Dum, dōnec, and quoad*, meaning *as long as*, take the Indicative; meaning *until*, they take the Subjunctive to denote purpose and futurity, but the Indicative to denote an actual fact: *dum haec geruntur, reliquī discesserunt, while these things were going on, the rest departed; exspectābant dum equitēs reverterentur, they were waiting until their cavalry should return.* [H. 603: 604, 1 (519). M. 349: 352-354. A. 328 & a. G. 569: 571: 572. B. 293, I-III, with 1 & 2.]



LESSON XXII

Use and Sequence of Tenses. — [H. 196-198: 526-550 (197: 198: 466-473: 491-496). M. 303-312: 314-317. A. 276-281: 283-288: 290. G. 222-252: 509-519. B. 257-269.]

112. In Latin the use of tenses is more exact than in English. Thus the English Present or Future, strictly considered, should often be a Future or Future Perfect. Carefully determine the exact time relation: *sī huic remedium attuleris, tē remūnerābor, if you bring (shall have*

brought, i.e. not until you have completed the action) *some cure for this, I will repay you*. [H. 540, 2 (470, with 1 & 2: 473 & 2). M. 311. A. 278 & b: 281 & R. G. 242 & R. 1: 244, with R. 1 & 2. B. 257, 1 & 2: 261, 2: 264, a.]

113. When the action of the dependent clause is either in the same or in some future time relative to that of the principal verb, the tense of the dependent clause is one of continued action, i.e. Present, Imperfect, or Future. When the dependent action precedes that of the principal, the dependent verb has a tense of completed action, i.e. Perfect, Pluperfect, or Future Perfect: *ille ūnus est quī hōc facere possit*, *he is the only one who can do this*; *ille ūnus est quī hōc fēcerit*, *he is the only one who did do this*.

114. 1. The tenses are divided into two classes: —

Primary: Present, Future, and Future Perfect Indicative, and Present and Perfect Subjunctive.

Secondary: Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect Indicative, and Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive. [H. 198 (198). M. 304. A. 285. G. 225. B. 258: 267, 1.]

2. On this division depends the rule for the sequence of tenses, which, however, affects only dependent subjunctive clauses.

RULE. — Any primary tense in the principal clause is followed by one of the primary tenses in the Subjunctive clause; any secondary tense in the principal clause, by one of the secondary tenses of the Subjunctive. [H. 542-544: 550 (491-496). M. 314-317. A. 286: 287. G. 509-519. B. 266, B: 267, 2.]

3. The points to observe are (1) whether the tense of the principal verb is primary or secondary; (2) whether

the action of the dependent verb is still continuing or is completed relative to the time of the principal verb.

Then use the tense that answers *both* demands. [H. 545 (492). M. 314. A. 286 & R. G. 510: 511. B. 257, 1: 267, 3.]

	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	RELATIVE TIME OF ACTION
<i>Primary</i>	Present	Present	Incomplete
	Future	Perfect	Complete
	Future Perf.		
<i>Secondary</i>	Imperfect	Imperfect	Incomplete
	Perfect	Pluperfect	Complete
	Pluperfect		

LESSON XXIII

Cause. — [H. 316, 7: 475: 481: 588: 589, I & II: 592: 598: 599: 638, 1: 683, 2, N. (416: 421, III: 516: 517: 540, IV). M. 218, 1: 238, 2: 254: 255, 2: 355-358: 382, 2: 465, 7 & 8: 470, 1. A. 156, *d-f*: 245: 255, *d*, 2: 292: 320, *e*: 321: 326. G. 373: 397: 408: 538-542: 579, II, *b*: 586: 626: 633. B. 198, 1: 219: 226, 2: 227, 2, *d*): 283, 3 & *a*: 285: 286: 299, 2: 337, 2, *f*.]

115. Cause expressed by a noun takes usually the Ablative, sometimes with a preposition. With *dignus*, an Ablative of cause without a preposition is regularly used: *quā (dē) rē senātus convocātus est, because of this thing the senate was called together; honoribus dignus est, he is worthy of his honors.* [H. 475: 481 (416 & 1: 421, III). M. 238, 2: 254. A. 245 & *a*. G. 397, N. 2: 408 & N. 3. B. 219: 226, 2.]

116. Cause is often expressed by the Accusative with *propter* or *ob*; also by *causā* and *grātiā*, *for the sake of*, with a qualifying Genitive: *propter aurum occisus est, he was killed for his gold; exempli grātiā, for the sake of illustration or example.* [H. 475, 2 (416, I, 2) & footnote 2). M. 218, 1: 254, N. 1. A. 245, *b* & *c*. G. 373 & R.: 408, N. 3 & 5. B. 198, 1.]

117. In causal clauses, when introduced by **cum** or **quī**, the Subjunctive is regularly used : **quae cum ita sint, progrediāmur**, *since these things are so, let us advance*. [H. 589, II: 592: 598 (517). M. 355: 382, 2. A. 320, *e*: 326. G. 586 & R. I: 633 B. 283, 3 & *a*: 285: 286, 2.]

118. In causal clauses introduced by **quod**, **quia**, or **quoniam**, the Indicative is used. But if the reason is quoted or stated doubtfully, the Subjunctive must be used : **quod vēnistis, vōbiscum ibō**, *because you have come, I will go with you*; **querēbātur quia sua vectigālia māiōra essent**, *he was complaining because (as he claimed) his taxes were too heavy*. [H. 588, I & II (516, I & II). M. 357: 358. A. 321. G. 539-541. B. 286, 1.]

NOTE. — For differences in the force of these conjunctions, see H. 316, 7 (311, 7: 540, IV, N.). M. 465, 7 & 8: 470, 1. A. 156, *d-f*. G. 538, notes: 542.

LESSON XXIV

Purpose — By Phrase. — [H. 425, 3: 433, with I-3: 435, 1: 608: 622: 626: 627, 2: 628: 632-634 (384, II, 1, 3): 390 & N. 1, 2): 391, II, 1, (2): 533, II & N. 1: 542, I, N. 2 & III, N. 2: 544, N. 2: 546). M. 206: 214 & N. 4: 289, 3: 291: 295, 2: 296: 297: 301: 332. A. 233: 234 & *b*: 294, *d*: 298, R. & *c*: 300: 302: 318. G. 356: 359 & R. 3: 416, 1: 428, R. 2: 430: 432 & R.: 435: 546, N. 3, end. B. 191 entire: 192, 2: 326, N.: 337, 7, 2): 338, 1, *c*) & 2 & 3: 339: 340, 1, with *a* & *b*.]

119. To express purpose by a noun, the Accusative with **ad** is used, especially with ideas of fitness and usefulness : **ad hanc rem Cicerōnī māgnō ūsuī erat**, *for this thing (purpose) he was of great service to Cicero*. [H. 435, 1 (391, II, 1, (2)). M. 214 & N. 4. A. 234 & *b*. G. 359 & R. 3. B. 192, 2, N.]

120. The Dative of purpose is also used, frequently with a Dative of the person interested (Dative of reference). This is most common with **dare**, **dūcere**, **esse**, **habēre**, and

vertere: praesidiō decimam legiōnem habēbat, he had the tenth legion as (for) a guard. [H. 433 & 2 (390, N. 1, 2). M. 206. A. 233. G. 356, R. 2 & 3. B. 191, with 1 & 2.]

121. To express purpose in brief phrase, the Gerundive, or the Gerund, may be used in the Accusative with **ad**, or in the Genitive preceding **causā** or **grātiā**.

1. The Gerundive is a passive participle, and agrees with the noun governed by **ad** or **causā**.

2. The Gerund, being a verbal noun, is governed by the **ad** or **causā**: —

tuōrum cōnsiliōrum reprimendōrum	} causā profūgērunt,
tua cōnsilia reprimendī	

they fled for the purpose of thwarting your plans.

In the first example, **cōnsiliōrum** is the Genitive with **causā**, and **reprimendōrum** agrees with **cōnsiliōrum**. In the second, **cōnsilia** is the Accusative, object of **reprimendī**, which is the Genitive with **causā**. Avoid the Accusative with Gerund after **ad**. [H. 626 & 5: 628 (542, I, N. 2 & III, N. 2.) M. 289, 3: 291: 296: 297. A. 298, R. & c: 300. G. 428, R. 2: 432 & R. B. 338, 1, c) & 3: 339, 1, 2 & 4.]

122. The Gerundive is used in agreement with the object of many verbs to denote the purpose: **nāvēs reficiendās cūrāvit, he had the ships repaired.** [H. 622 (544, 2, N. 2). M. 295, 2. A. 294, d. G. 430. B. 337, 7, 2).]

123. The Supine in **-um**, with an object if necessary, is used to express purpose only with verbs of motion: **lūdōs vīsum iērunt, they went to see the games.** [H. 632, 1: 633 (546 & N. 4). M. 301. A. 302. G. 435, with N. 1 & 2. B. 340, 1, with a & b.]

Caution. — Never express purpose in Latin by the Infinitive, although this construction is very commonly used in English. [H. 608 (533, II & N. 1). M. 332. A. 318. G. 546, N. 3, end. B. 326, N.]

LESSON XXV

Purpose — By Clause. — [H. 564-568: 589: 590 (497: 498). M. 328: 330: 331: 333-336: 382 & 3. A. 180, e: 317: 331. G. 544-550: 630. B. 282: 294-296.]

124. To express purpose by a clause, the Subjunctive is used with **ut** if affirmative, with **nē** if negative: **ut Catilīna in exsilium exīret, Cicerō omnia fēcit, Cicerō made every effort that Catiline should go into exile.** [H. 568 (497, II). M. 328. A. 317 & 1. G. 545, 1 & 3. B. 282, 1.]

125. The relative **quī**, with the Subjunctive, may be used when the antecedent of **quī** is not that person whose purpose is expressed. **Quō** (originally an Ablative of degree) is used in a purpose clause which contains a comparative: **lēgātōs mittit quī cum Caesare conloquantur, he sends ambassadors to confer with Caesar; quō facilius causam bellandī reperīrent, Carthāginiēnsēs in Hispāniam Hamilcarem mīsērunt, the Carthaginians sent Hamilcar to Spain that they might more easily find a pretext for making war.** [H. 568, 7: 589: 590 (497, I & II, 2). M. 331: 382 & 3. A. 317, 2 & b. G. 545, 2: 630. B. 282, 1, a & 2 with a.]

126. A verb whose action looks toward the future takes as its object a purpose clause used substantively. See the grammar for lists of such verbs.

1. **Iubeō, order,** and **vetō, forbid,** take the Infinitive.

2. Verbs of wishing take either the Infinitive or the Subjunctive.

3. Verbs of hindering in the affirmative have the Subjunctive with **quōminus**. A few verbs, as **prohibeō**, have the Infinitive.

Imperāvit nē quis ex castrīs discēderet, he ordered that no one should leave the camp; iussit eōs vīcum incendere, he

ordered them to burn the village ; tē venīre vult, or ut veniās vult, he wishes you to come ; eum id facere prohibēt, he prevents him from doing this. [H. 564: 565, with 2-5: 566 (498, I & II). M. 333-335. A. 331 & a-e. G. 544, II: 546, 1 & 2: 549. B. 294: 295: 296, 1.]

127. Verbs and expressions of fearing are followed by the Subjunctive with *nē* if affirmative, with *ut* (*nē nōn*) if negative: *timēbat ut venīrētis, he was afraid that you would not come ; vereor nē quid malī accidat, I fear that some misfortune may happen.* [H. 567, with 1-4 (498, III, with N. 1 & 2). M. 336. A. 331, f & N. G. 550, 1 & 2, with N. 1. B. 296, 2 & a.]

128. Purpose is regularly expressed by a tense of incomplete action, i.e. the Present or the Imperfect.

For *dum* in purpose clauses, see 111.

LESSON XXVI

Result. — [H. 550: 569-571: 591: 594, II: 595 (495, VI: 500-505) M. 316, 2: 337: 338: 341: 382 & 4: 383. A. 163, c: 287, c: 319: 320: 332. G. 513: 543, 4: 551-556: 631: 632. B. 268, 6: 269, 3: 283: 284: 295, 3, a: 297: 298.]

129. The result of an action is expressed by the Subjunctive with *ut* if affirmative, with *ut nōn* if negative: *tam callidus erat Hannibal ut Rōmānōs saepe ēlūderet, Hannibal was so cunning that he often outwitted the Romans.* [H. 570 (500, II). M. 337: 338. A. 319 & R. under d. G. 552, 1 & 2. B. 284, 1.]

130. Relative result clauses are in general those which give some characteristic of an otherwise indefinite antecedent (cf. 76-79): *quae anus tam stulta invenīrī potest quae haec extimēscat? what old woman can be found so*

foolish as to believe these things? [H. 591, 1-7 (503, I & II). M. 382, with 4 & 5: 383. A. 319, 2 & N.: 320. G. 552, R. 2: 631 & 1-3. B. 282, 3: 283, 1-5: 284, 2 & a.]

131. Quīn with a Subjunctive of result is used after negative expressions of hindrance, doubt, etc.: *nōn est dubium quīn Cicerō māximus ōrātor fuerit, there is no doubt that Cicero was a very great orator.* [H. 594, II: 595 & 1 (501, II, 2: 504: 505, II). M. 341, 3. A. 319, c & d. G. 554-556. B. 284, 3: 295, 3, a: 298.]

132. Many verbs (see the grammar for lists) take a clause of result as the subject, if the main verb is impersonal; as the object, if the clause is both the object and the result of the action of the main verb: *accidit ut locus inīquus esset, it happened that the position was unfavorable; effēcit ut eā elephantus ōrnātus īro posset, he made it possible for an elephant, fully equipped, to go this way.* [H. 571 (501). M. 341, 1 & 2. A. 332. G. 553. B. 297.]

133. In result clauses, if the action is completed, the Perfect Subjunctive is generally used even after the secondary tenses. [H. 550 (495, VI). M. 316, 2. A. 287, c. G. 513. B. 268, 6.]

LESSON XXVII

Conditions — Simple Statement. — [H. 316, 3: 572: 573, Cl. I: 574: 575 (311, 3: 507, I & N. 7: 508). M. 360: 361: 363: 371: 372: 374: 470, 4. A. 155, 2, e: 305, a & b, 1: 306: 307, 1, with a, c & d: 310: 311. G. 589-591: 593: 594, I: 595. B. 301: 302: 306.]

134. A conditional sentence has two clauses, the conditional clause or protasis, and the conclusion or apodosis.

135. Two points must be observed from the English sentence before any attempt to write it in Latin is made:

(1) the Time to which the condition refers — present, past, or future; (2) the Attitude of the speaker or writer to the act — does he simply state the condition without any implication of its truth, or does he imply that the supposition is only possible (not probable) or is even untrue? *If he is here, it is well*: time, present; thought expressed, simple (i.e. simply stated). *If he were here, it would be well*: time, present; thought, contrary to fact.

136. Whatever the time referred to if the writer simply states the condition without implying its truth or falsity, the conditional clause has the Indicative, the conclusion also the Indicative, unless other demands of the sentence require a different form of the verb, e.g. the Imperative.

TIME	THOUGHT EXPRESSED	CONDITION	CONCLUSION	EXAMPLE
Present	Simple	Sī with Pres. Ind.	Pres. Ind.	Sī pater adest, bene est, if father is here, it is well
Past	Simple	Sī with Past tense, Ind.	Past tense, Ind.	Sī pater aderat, bene erat, if father was here, it was well
Future	Simple (more vivid, <i>shall or will</i>)	Sī with Fut. or Fut. Perf. Ind.	Some Fut. form	Sī pater aderit, bene erit, if father is (shall be) here, it will be well

137. The tense of the verb in the conditional clause must be carefully considered, for an English Present often conceals a real Future or even a Future Perfect. In Latin the exact time-relation must appear; for examples, see 112.

LESSON XXVIII

Conditions — Possible and Contrary to Fact. — [H. 573, Cl. II & III: 576-584 (507, II & III: 509-511: 513, II). M. 364-366: 368: 369: 375. A. 305, *b*, 2 & *c*: 307, 2, with *b*, *c* & *d*: 308: 312. G. 594, II & III: 596-602. B. 303: 304: 307.]

138. The forms of conditional sentences not already explained (**134-137**), imply either that the supposition is not true in the present, or was not true in the past, or is merely possible (not probable) in the future. The same mood is used in both clauses, and the same tense also, if both refer to the same time.

139. A condition possible in future time (less vivid, with English auxiliaries *should* or *would*) has generally the Present Subjunctive in both clauses. When the action of the conditional clause is to be completed before the conclusion would begin, the Perfect Subjunctive is used in the conditional clause. [H. 576 & I: 577 (509 & N. 1). M. 364: 365. A. 307, 2, with *b* & *c*. G. 596. B. 303.]

140. In a condition where the supposition is not viewed as true (contrary to fact) the Imperfect Subjunctive refers to present time and the Pluperfect Subjunctive to past time. Cf. the English, *if he were here*; *if he had been here*. See **141**, Note. [H. 579 & I (510: 511, I, N. 2 & 3). M. 366: 368: 369. A. 308 & *c*. G. 597. B. 304.]

141. Sometimes the condition and the conclusion may refer to different times; in such cases the verb of each clause is put in the tense required by its time relation: *if he had come* (in past time), *we should not* (in present time) *be here*, *sī vēnisset, nōn hīc adessēmus*.

TIME	THOUGHT EXPRESSED	CONDITION	CONCLUSION	EXAMPLE
Present	Contrary to Fact	SI with Imperf. Subj.	Imperf. Subj.	SI pater adesset, bene esset, <i>if fa- ther were here, it would be well</i>
Past	Contrary to Fact	SI with Pluperf. Subj.	Pluperf. Subj.	SI pater adfuisset, bene fuisset, <i>if fa- ther had been here, it would have been well</i>
Future	Possible (less vivid, <i>should or would</i>)	SI with Pres. (Perf.) Subj.	Present Subj.	SI pater adsit, bene sit, <i>if father should be here, it would be well</i>

NOTE. — Expressions of ability, duty, necessity, and propriety in the conclusion regularly have the Imperfect or Perfect Indicative. [H. 583 (511, 1, N. 3). M. 368. A. 311, c. G. 597, 3. B. 304, 3 & a.]

LESSON XXIX

Concession and Proviso. — [H. 316, 4: 559, 3: 585-587: 593, 2: 598: 599: 638, 2 (311, 4: 513, 1: 514: 515: 549, 2). M. 282: 376: 378: 382, 1. A. 154, b, 3: 155, 2, g: 156, i: 255, d, 3: 266 & c: 292: 313: 314: 320, e: 326. G. 264: 573: 587: 603-609: 634. B. 278: 283, 3: 308-310.]

142. Concessive clauses take the Subjunctive if introduced by *quamvis* or *nē*, *ut*, *licet*, *cum*, or the relative *quī*: *nē clārus sit, plūrimum potest, although he is not famous, he has great power.* [H. 586, II: 593, 2: 598 (515, III). M. 378, 2 & 6: 382, 1. A. 313, with a, b, d & h. G. 606-608: 634. B. 278: 283, 3: 308: 309 with 1, 3 & 4.]

143. They take the Indicative, if introduced by *quamquam*, which is used only for an admitted fact: *quamquam*

pēnsūm difficile est, tamen fierī potest, *although the task is certainly hard, yet it can be done.* [H. 586, I (515, I). M. 378, 5 & N. A. 313, *e* & *f*. G. 605. B. 309 & 2.]

144. If introduced by *etsī*, *etiāmsī*, or *tametsī*, they take the constructions of conditional clauses (see 134–141): *etiāmsī Catilīna Rōmā exeat, complūrēs scelerātī remaneant, although Catiline should go from Rome, many wicked men would remain.* [H. 585: 586, I (515, II). M. 378, 3 & 4. A. 313, *c*. G. 604. B. 309, 2 & *a*.]

145. A clause of *Proviso* (*provided that*) introduced by *dum*, *modo*, or *dummodo* takes the Subjunctive, negative *nē*: *dum valeās, gaudeō, if only you are well, I am glad.* [H. 587 (513, I). M. 376. A. 314. G. 573. B. 310.]

LESSON XXX

Indirect Discourse — Declarative Sentences. — [H. 548: 613: 614: 641–645 (522: 523, I: 524–526 & footnote 2). M. 260: 391: 392: 396: 398. A. 335: 336, I & 2: 336, *a*, I: 336, A, with N.: 336, B. G. 520: 522: 531: 647–650: 653–655: 660. B. 244, I, I & II: 268, 2: 270, I: 313: 314: 317: 318.]

146. Indirect quotations depend upon verbs or words of saying, thinking, perceiving, and the like, generally either as object if the verb is active, or as subject if it is passive. [H. 613: 614: 641 (522: 535, I). M. 391. A. 335: 336, I. G. 527: 528: 648. B. 313: 314.]

147. The principal verb in declarative sentences takes the Infinitive with a subject Accusative. The subject is not usually omitted in the Latin: *fortis es, you are brave; dixit tē fortem esse, he said that you were brave.* [H. 642 (523, I). M. 392. A. 336, 2 & *a*, I. G. 650. B. 314, I & 2.]

148. The tense of the Infinitive corresponds to that of the direct statement. The Present Infinitive represents the Present; the Future represents the Future and the Future Perfect; the Perfect represents the Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect. Thus the tense of the Infinitive in indirect discourse is always Present, Future, or Past, relatively to the tense of the verb of saying.

DIRECT

veniō, *I am coming*

veniam, *I will come*

vēnī, *I came*

INDIRECT, **dixit**

sē venīre, *he said he was coming*

sē ventūrum esse, *he said he would come*

sē vēnisse, *he said he had come*

[H. 644 (525). M. 260. A. 336, A. G. 653. B. 270, 1 & a-c: 317.]

149. All subordinate verbs remain or become Subjunctive. The tense of the Subjunctive depends on that of the verb of saying, in accordance with the rules for sequence of tenses (114); but after a Perfect Infinitive, even when the principal verb is primary, the secondary sequence is regularly found: **Caesar dixit sē eīs quōs finēs vellent dātūrum esse**, *Caesar said that he would give them the boundaries they wished*. [H. 548: 643: 644 & 2 (495, IV: 524: 525). M. 316, 6: 392: 396: 398. A. 336, 2 & B, with N. 2. G. 518: 650: 654: 655. B. 268, 2: 314: 318.]

150. In transferring direct discourse into indirect, be very careful in regard to the person of pronouns. If the subject of the Infinitive refers to the same person as that of the verb of saying, the reflexive **sē** is used; other pronouns offer no special difficulty.

Direct: **ego vōbīs agrum dedī**, *I have given you the land*.

Indirect: **dīcit sē vōbīs (or iīs) agrum dedisse**, *he says he has given you (them) the land*.

Directions for Accuracy. — Take the sentence apart by itself and study its meaning carefully in the English.

Imagine yourself the speaker and thoroughly understand both the direct and the indirect forms in English. Then write in Latin what is or was really said, i.e. the direct quotation. Finally, transfer, according to above principles, into the indirect: *He said that he would do this.* What did he really say? *I (or possibly he) will do this* — referring to time future relative to the time of saying. Direct: *ego hōc faciam* (or *is faciet*); Indirect, depending on *dixit*: *sē* (or *eum*) *hōc factūrum esse*.

LESSON XXXI

Indirect Discourse — Conditional Sentences. — [H. 646-648 (527). M. 402-404. A. 337. G. 656-659. B. 319-322.]

151. In transferring a conditional sentence from direct discourse into indirect, special care should be taken.

The conditional clause, as subordinate, always has the Subjunctive mood. In a contrary to fact condition the tense (Imperfect or Pluperfect) is never changed, even after a primary tense. In all other conditions, however, the rule for sequence is observed.

	DIRECT	DEPENDING ON dicit	DEPENDING ON dixit
Present:	<i>sī adest</i> , simple	<i>sī adsit</i>	<i>sī adesset</i>
	<i>sī adesset</i> , cont. to fact	<i>sī adesset</i>	<i>sī adesset</i>
Past:	<i>sī aderat</i> , simple	<i>sī adsit</i>	<i>sī adesset</i>
	<i>sī adfuisset</i> , cont. to fact	<i>sī adfuisset</i>	<i>sī adfuisset</i>
Future:	<i>sī aderit</i> , probable	<i>sī adsit</i>	<i>sī adesset</i>
	<i>sī adsit</i> , possible	<i>sī adsit</i>	<i>sī adesset</i>
	<i>sī fēcerit</i> , probable (Fut. Perf.)	<i>sī fēcerit</i> (Perf. Subj.)	<i>sī fēcisset</i>

152. 1. The conclusion has the Infinitive, unless other demands of the sentence require the Subjunctive.

2. An Indicative retains the same tense in the Infinitive.

3. A Present Subjunctive (future possible) becomes the Future Infinitive.

4. An Imperfect Subjunctive (present contrary to fact) becomes, if active, the Future active Participle with **esse**; if passive, **futūrum esse ut** with the Imperfect Subjunctive.

5. A Pluperfect Subjunctive (past contrary to fact) becomes, if active, the Future active Participle with **fuisse**; if passive, **futūrum fuisse ut** with the Imperfect Subjunctive.

	DIRECT	DEPENDING ON EITHER dicit OR dixit
Present:	bene est , simple	bene esse
	bene esset , cont. to fact	bene futūrum esse
Past:	bene erat , simple	bene fuisse
	bene fuisset , cont. to fact	bene futūrum fuisse
Future:	bene erit , probable	bene futūrum esse
	bene sit , possible	bene futūrum esse
Present:	monērētur , cont. to fact	futūrum esse ut monērētur
Past:	monitus esset , cont. to fact	futūrum fuisse ut monērētur

LESSON XXXII

Indirect Discourse — Questions and Commands. — [H. 642 & 2-5: 644: 649, II-651 (523, II & III: 525: 529). M. 388-390: 393-396. A. 334: 336, B. N. 1: 338: 339. G. 460: 461: 467: 651-655. B. 269, 3: 300: 315: 316: 318: 322, b.]

153. A question in direct discourse usually has the Subjunctive mood. If, however, the question is merely one of form, not expecting an answer, the Infinitive with subject Accusative is used. After a verb of asking, the

Subjunctive is regularly used: **Ariovistus respondit cūr in suās possessiōnēs venīret**, *Ariovistus asked in reply why he (Caesar) came into his lands*; **Caesar respondit num recentium iniūriarum memoriam sē dēpōnere posse**, *Caesar asked in reply if it was possible for him to forget the recent wrongs*. [H. 642, with 2 & 3: 649, II, with 2 & 3: 650, with 1 & 2: 651 (523, II: 529, I). M. 394: 395. A. 334: 338, with N. 1 & 2 & a. G. 467: 651 & R. 1. B. 300, 1-4, a: 315, 1-3.]

154. Imperative forms, whether Subjunctive or Imperative in the direct discourse, have the Subjunctive in the indirect. The negative is always **nē**: **nōlī id facere**, *do not do this*; **dīxit nē id facerēs**, *he said that you should not do this*; **nē id faciat**, *let him not do this*; **dīxērunt nē id faceret**, *they said that he should not do this*. [H. 642, with 4 & 5 (523, III). M. 393. A. 339, with R. & N. 2. G. 652. B. 316 & a.]

155. The verbs in these constructions follow the rule for sequence of tenses (**113 & 114**). [H. 644, with 1 & 2 (525). M. 396. A. 336. B, N. 1: 339, N. 1. G. 654: 655. B. 318.]

LESSON XXXIII

Informal Indirect Discourse and Attraction. — [H. 588, II: 649, I: 652 (516, II: 528: 529, II & N. 1). M. 357: 400: 405. A. 340-342. G. 662: 663. B. 286, 1: 323: 324.]

156. If some part of a statement rests on another's authority, the Subjunctive is used on the principle of indirect discourse, although a verb of saying need not be expressed. This is especially common in relative clauses and causal clauses with **quod** (cf. **118**): **pecūniam quae sibi dōnāta esset pendēbat**, *he was spending money which, he said, had been given him*. [H. 588, II: 649, I (516, II: 528, 1). M. 357: 400. A. 340: 341 & a-d, with R. G. 662: 663, 2. B. 286, 1: 323.]

157. Sometimes a clause depending on a Subjunctive clause and expressing an essential part of that clause, has its verb also in the Subjunctive. Sometimes after an Infinitive the Subjunctive is thus used. This use is best explained by the term *attraction*: **scit quārē mihi quae possint dōnent**, *he knows why they give me whatever they can*. [H. 652 & 1 (529, II & N. 1). M. 405. A. 342, with *a* & N. G. 663, 1. B. 324, 1 & 2.]

LESSON XXXIV

Commands and Exhortations. — [H. 559-561 (483: 484, II & IV: 487: 489). M. 319-322. A. 266: 269: G. 263: 266-268: 270-272: 275. B. 274-276: 281.]

158. The Imperative is used in positive commands and entreaties of the second person. The tense is usually Present, as the Future is rare except in decrees and formal commands: **domī manēte**, *remain at home*. [H. 560 & 2-4 (487, with 1 & 2). M. 319: 320: 322. A. 269 & *d*. G. 266-268. B. 281 & 1.]

159. The Hortatory Subjunctive (negative **nē**) is used for the first and third persons, which are missing in the Imperative. The tense is usually Present: **hōc faciāmus**, *let us do this*; **nē hōc faciāmus**, *let us not do this*. [H. 559, with 1 & 2 (483: 484, II & IV). M. 321: 322. A. 266 & R. G. 263. B. 274: 275, with 1 & 2.]

160. A negative command or prohibition in the second person may be expressed (1) by **nōlī** with the Present Infinitive; (2) by **nē** with the Perfect Subjunctive (rare in classical prose); or (3) by **cavē nē** with the Subjunctive. Do not use the Imperative with a negative to express prohibition: **nōlīte hōc facere**; **nē hōc fēceritis**; **cavēte (nē) hōc faciātis**, *do not do this*. [H. 561, 1, 2, N. & 4 (489). M. 321, 4: 322. A. 269, with *a* & *b*. G. 270: 271, 2: 272, 2. B. 276, with *a* & *c*: 281, 2.]

LESSON XXXV

Wishes. — [H. 551, II: 558 & 1-4 (483: 484, I). M. 325. A. 267. G. 256, 2: 260: 261. B. 279: 280, 2, a.]

161. The Subjunctive (negative *nē*) is used to express a Wish. The Present (or rarely the Perfect) is used when the possibility for the wish to be fulfilled has not passed; the Imperfect or Pluperfect when it is known that the wish cannot be fulfilled. The Imperfect refers to present time, and the Pluperfect to past (cf. conditional sentences).

162. The particle *utinam* (*utinam nē*) may be used with the Present, and is regularly used with the Imperfect and Pluperfect. Sometimes *velim* or *vellem* is used instead of *utinam*: *veniat* (or *velim veniat*), *may he come*; *utinam nē venīret*, *would that he were not coming*; *utinam* (or *vellem*) *vēnisset*, *O that he had come*.

LESSON XXXVI

Potential and Deliberative. — [H. 521: 551, I: 552-557: 559, 4 & 5 (477, II: 485: 486). M. 324: 327. A. 268: 311. G. 256, 2: 257-259. B. 277: 280.]

163. In English the auxiliary verbs *may*, *might*, *would*, etc., are often used to express an opinion in more mild or polite form. Sometimes this seems to correspond to the conclusion of some condition understood. In Latin this use is expressed by the Potential Subjunctive (negative *nōn*).

164. Referring to present or future time, the tense is Present (rarely Perfect); referring to past time — usually in the indefinite second person — the tense is Imperfect: *aliquis dīcat, some one may say; eum stultum crēderēs, you would have thought him foolish.* [H. 552: 554, 1 & 3: 555: 556 (477, II: 485: 486, I & III). M. 327. A. 311, *a*, with R. & *b*. G. 257, 2: 258. B. 280 & 1-4.]

165. The Deliberative Subjunctive (negative *nōn*) is used in questions asked merely for effect, or to express doubt or impossibility of fulfillment. The Present refers to present or to future time; the Imperfect to past time: *quid dīcam? what am I to say? quid dīcerem? what could I say?* [H. 552: 557: 559, 4 & N.: 559, 5 & N. (486, II). M. 324. A. 268. G. 259. B. 277 & *a*.]

Caution. — The intention in the following exercises is to give the spirit of the author in everyday English. Consequently take special care in the choice of Latin words, and study how to make good Latin sentences. Note, for example, that in Latin many separate English sentences may be combined into one. In short, aim to write Latin, not English with Latin words.

EXERCISES — CAESAR

Words connected by hyphens are to be translated by a single word, e.g. *obtain-possession-of*. Words in round brackets are to be omitted in translation. Square brackets indicate the Latin rendering. Figures in heavy type refer to the sections of the Introduction. — See Caution, p. 53.

ARRANGEMENT OF THE SENTENCE (1-6)

B. G. II, 1-6

166. When Caesar was wintering in Gaul, the Belgians began to conspire against the Roman people. They feared Caesar and his army, because he had already entirely¹ subdued² the Helvetians and the Germans. Caesar was quickly informed of these movements [things] by Labienus, the lieutenant, whom he had left in Gaul. Disturbed by these reports, he hastened to enroll two new legions, and at the beginning of summer sent them to Labienus. When Caesar himself came to the army, he learned how great forces the Belgians were³ collecting. He especially encouraged the Remi, who had placed themselves under the protection of the Roman people, and ordered them to keep the forces of the enemy apart. He himself led the army across the river Axona and there left a garrison. The Belgians meanwhile⁴ began to attack Bibrax, a town of the Remi.

¹ *omnīnō*.

² *pācō*.

³ **153.**

⁴ *interim*.

SIMPLE AGREEMENTS (7-10)

B. G. II, 7-13

167. On the arrival of archers and slingers whom Caesar had sent to aid [for an aid¹ to] the townspeople, the Belgians set out toward Caesar and pitched camp less than two miles off. Caesar had fortified a place suitable for drawing up a battle-line, but was refraining from battle on account of the multitude of the enemy. Between the two armies was a swamp which neither dared cross. After delaying a few days in their camp, the Belgians attempted to obtain-possession-of a fortress which guarded [was for a guard to] the bridge. Their expectation [hope] failed them, for Caesar's forces attacked them in the river and repulsed them [having attacked, repulsed them]. At this time the Bellovaci were informed that the Aedui were leading an army into their country. On learning this [this having been learned], they hastened home. Caesar heard the great noise and confusion, and at daybreak [at first light] followed with all his forces. He attacked the rear with his cavalry and killed a great number. The next day he led the army against the Suessiones, whose chief men were given as hostages.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATIONS. TENSES (11-15)

B. G. II, 14-21

168. Afterwards he received the Bellovaci and the Ambiani under his protection [into his faith]. While they were giving hostages, he inquired what the character [nature] of the Nervii was. These were men of great valor

¹ 120.

and had not accepted any conditions of surrender. Against them Caesar now hastened. His march was hindered at the Sabis river by frequent hedges. At this place the Nervii intended to attack his army, thinking: "We shall defeat the Romans (while) encumbered with their baggage." Caesar, however, had now for a long time been placing his baggage-train in the rear of [after] six legions (which were) unencumbered. On their arrival they were fortifying the camp, but suddenly all the Nervii rushed from the forest and made an attack upon them. They had to leave their work and draw up a line of battle. They with difficulty¹ withstood the attack of the enemy; for they were off-their-guard² and could not seek their own standards, but each man was fighting where he chanced to stand [stood by chance].

USES OF THE INFINITIVE (16-20)

B. G. II, 22-29

169. Nevertheless, the Romans were not put to flight, but bravely tried to repel the attack of the Nervii. That part of Caesar's forces which defended the camp [what part was for a defense³ to the camp] on the left and on the front had routed the Atrebates and crossed the river in pursuit [pursuing]. And so the camp was stripped of defenders,⁴ and hither the Nervii hastened. In a short time they had gained possession of it, and began to surround the seventh and the twelfth legions on the right. Meanwhile the cavalry of the Treveri fled home, for they thought that the Nervii had overwhelmed the Romans and that Caesar and his army were in flight. During this

¹ Cf. text, II, 6.

² *imprūdēns*.

³ *dēfensiō*.

⁴ Cf. text, II, 12.

time Caesar was hastening from the tenth legion to the others; encouraging all, he advanced among the centurions, ordered the crowded battle-line to be opened, inspired hope in the soldiers, and checked the enemy's advance a little. Now Labienus, who had conquered a part of the Nervii, sent troops to Caesar's aid. By this [which] help men of so-great valor were overcome and were reduced from a great nation almost to annihilation. (With) the Nervii conquered, all the Belgians had come into the power of the Roman people. But the Aduatuci who were marching to the aid of the Nervii, on learning of this flight, turned back to a fortified town.

ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE (21-24)¹

B. G. II, 30-35

170. From their town the Aduatuci made frequent attacks on Caesar's forces. Caesar, having brought up the sheds and constructed a tower, began to assault [attack] the enemy's walls. Alarmed at these strange [new] engines-of-war and at the quickness of their approach, they sent ambassadors to Caesar and begged for peace. They said that they did not wish² to surrender their arms, for they feared their neighbors. But when commanded by Caesar, they threw great heaps of arms into the ditch, and having opened their gates enjoyed [used] peace till³ evening. At night, when the soldiers were withdrawn, the gates were closed. Having concealed a part of their arms, they suddenly sallied forth and attacked the army which was before the town; but driven back by Caesar's forces, they were compelled to surrender.

¹ Use the Ablative Absolute where it is possible.

² *nōlō*.

³ *ad*.

The survivors¹ Caesar sold (as slaves). Publius Crassus, his lieutenant, having brought many of the maritime states under the sway [power] of the Roman people, (so) informed Caesar. After subduing so many states, since (only) a small part of the summer was left, Caesar led his legions into winter quarters, and a thanksgiving was decreed at Rome.²

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS (25-31)

B. G. III, 1-3

171. Did Caesar lead his army with him into Italy? No, he sent the twelfth legion, under the leadership of Galba,³ to the Alps. Why⁴ did he place this legion there? Because the road was dangerous⁵ for traders, and the duties were excessive [great], and because he wished Galba to subdue the Gauls who held the fortresses. How many battles did he fight [make]? Several. Galba conquered this people, did he⁶ not? Yes, and began to fortify Octodurus, as winter quarters. This village was not⁶ situated on a mountain, was⁶ it? No, it was in a valley, and was divided by a river into two parts, one of which he gave to the Gauls. Did Caesar wish to open the roads or to hold this place as a perpetual possession? He wished to join it to the province. Did they try to renew the war, or not? They left the village and took the heights. How quickly was Galba informed of this? What did he do? He called a council-of-war, and all gave [spoke] their opinions. What plan [what of plan] did he adopt [take]? He decided to defend the camp.

¹ Cf. text, II, 28.

² 97.

³ Ablative Absolute.

⁴ *cūr*.

⁵ *periculōsus*.

⁶ Express by the form of the question.

OBJECT CASES—I. ACCUSATIVE (32-39)

B. G. III, 4-6

172. In a short time, the enemy rushed down from the higher places and made an attack upon the Romans, hurling stones and javelins. Galba's forces fought continuously for six hours and, (though) hard-pressed, withstood the first assaults. But finally¹ weapons failed them, and because of their small-number not even the wounded could depart; but the enemy, (when) exhausted by wounds or by fighting [battle], kept withdrawing, and fresh forces succeeded (them). Then Baculus, who had the most influence of the centurions, asked Galba his plan. They decided [it pleased them] to make a sally and to rout the enemy. And so, after² resting awhile and picking up the spent missiles, the soldiers suddenly sallied forth and drove the Gauls in flight. For, thinking the Romans were conquered, the Gauls had come to the camp. When this battle³ had been fought [made], Galba burned the villages and led his legion across the mountains to (the country of) the Allobroges. He had not done all that Caesar wished.

OBJECT CASES—2. GENITIVE (40-45)

B. G. III, 7-11

173. Caesar had to conquer the peoples of Gaul one by one.⁴ Many of these gave him as hostages the sons of their chiefs. Sometimes⁵ the Gauls regretted this and wished to get them back. On account of the scarcity of grain, Caesar had sent his legions into winter quarters

¹ *dēniq̄*.² *postquam* with Perfect Indicative.³ Cf. 21-24.⁴ *singulī*.⁵ *nōnnumquam*; *aliquandō*.

among many states. In (the country of) the Andes he had placed a part of his army under the leadership of Crassus. This man sent ambassadors to the Veneti for grain. The Veneti detained them, for they thought that by means of his ambassadors they could recover their children,¹ whom they had not forgotten. Their neighbors were induced to give them aid, and allies were summoned from Britain. Crassus, however, quickly informed Caesar of this and accused the Gauls of conspiracy. As soon as Caesar had built ships and prepared forces, he began to wage war with the Veneti. He sent one of his lieutenants toward the Rhine, and Crassus and Sabinus into neighboring states. Do you remember the name of the young man whom he placed-in-command-of the fleet?

OBJECT CASES — 3. DATIVE (46-51)

B. G. III, 12-16

174. Caesar had determined to make war upon the Veneti, for they had not obeyed² him, but had even detained his lieutenants. It was not easy to get possession of their towns from the land because of the tide, and they had a large fleet of ships as a defense. Caesar also had built a fleet which Brutus commanded, but it could not be brought up during a great part of the summer. In the meantime Caesar had taken many towns, but no men, for the Veneti by means of their ships kept withdrawing to other towns. Their ships were better suited to the great tides of this sea. Neither could our beaks harm the Gallic ships nor could our men easily hurl weapons upon them. On the arrival of our fleet the Veneti hastened to make an attack

¹ *liberī.*

² *pāreō.*

upon it. They relied¹ upon their sails and knowledge² of the shoals. The Romans fought near Caesar's camp, and this increased³ their courage. They used sharp hooks attached to long poles. With these they broke away the sail-yards of the enemy's ships, and the barbarians tried to seek (a place of) safety. But there was a calm, and they could not escape. After the defeat of the fleet, the Veneti surrendered to Caesar, who sold them as slaves.

OBJECT CASES — 4. ABLATIVE (2-57)

B. G. III, 17-19

175. While Caesar was fighting in Venetia, Q. Titurius Sabinus with a part of the army was in the country of the Venelli. This people had revolted and had put Viridovix in command of their forces. Viridovix daily led forth his troops, but Titurius did not wish to fight in the absence of his commander, unless all things were most favorable, and remained in camp. Because of his hesitation the scorn of the barbarians⁴ was great, and they dared almost to attack the camp. Titurius needed the assistance of a Gaul, and made use of one of the barbarians who was in his army. He, for a reward, stated to Viridovix that Caesar was being conquered in Venetia and that Sabinus intended to set out the next night to his aid. The Gauls believed the deserter and thought that by quickness they could overwhelm the Romans. They rushed to the camp, from which the Romans unexpectedly sallied and made an attack upon them. They surpassed the Venelli in position, valor, and training, and easily conquered them. The other states

¹ *cōnfīdō*.

² *scientia*.

³ *augeō*.

⁴ The Subjective Genitive in Caesar and Cicero usually precedes its noun.

then surrendered to Sabinus. Caesar was glad to hear [heard gladly] of this victory and at the same time informed Sabinus that the Veneti also were defeated.

PASSIVES (58-62)

B. G. III, 20-22

176. Do you not remember the name of the other lieutenant, who had been sent into one of the neighboring states during the war with the Veneti? He was ordered to go into Aquitania, a region in which many years before a Roman army had been repulsed and its commander slain. Crassus, the lieutenant, had to provide an army. And so the bravest men were summoned from the province and were led into the country of the Sontiates. This people relied on their valor and an ambush. Their cavalry was easily defeated, and our men pursued into a defile in which infantry had been stationed. The enemy suddenly attacked them with all their forces, and a long and fierce [keen] battle was fought there. The Romans are said to have fought bravely (though) without their commander-in-chief, and the enemy were driven back. The town was at length captured, but all were spared.¹ Adiatunus had been made commander of the Soldurii, who were not asked their opinion, but were ordered to make a sally. When this was discovered by the Romans, they rushed to arms and drove the Soldurii back to the town. However, those who had attempted to break out were not harmed by the Romans, but the same terms of surrender were granted them by Crassus.

¹ *parcō*.

POSSESSION (63-67)

B. G. III, 23-26

177. After the Sontiates had been thus defeated by Crassus, war was made upon the rest of Aquitania. These states had ¹ towns (which were) fortified in Roman fashion, and had chosen (as) leaders those who had learned ² from Sertorius the art of war. Sertorius had been a general in the army of Marius, but was for many years in Spain. He was considered a very brave man and a superior leader. Aquitania was a neighboring (country) of Spain, and thence the Gauls had many auxiliaries. Because of this they increased greatly in number and attempted to shut off our men from supplies. The barbarians had provisions enough for this war and had determined to delay and fight in safety. And so they remained in their camp whenever Crassus gave them an opportunity for battle. The Roman soldiers thought them timid and were eager to rush against their camp. Crassus was obliged [had] to fight, and on the next day attacked the enemy. He kept exhorting his (men), but he had very many auxiliaries who were not much trusted by him, and the enemy fought bravely. For this reason [cause] he could gain no entrance to their camp. This, however, was not carefully guarded at the rear-gate, and the Romans' cavalry informed their leader of this. What was done? Crassus quickly sent a part of his forces by a round-about [longer] way, and they came to the fortifications while the rest were intent on the battle. Thus the enemy (were) surrounded (and) rushed from the camp in flight, but nearly all were killed by the cavalry.

¹ Translate in two ways.² *discō*.

DESCRIPTION — BY PHRASE (68-75)

B. G. III, 27-29

178. Because of the victory of Crassus this part of Gaul surrendered. Caesar, the same year, attempted to pacify the Morini and the Menapii. But they fought in a different way from the others, trusting in their forests, and because of heavy rains the Romans could not finish their work, and so were led into winter quarters. Caesar has written about all these wars in Gaul. He had been a man of great influence¹ in his city among the plebs, and then in Gaul was winning² great glory. He was a general of great valor, and in swiftness of movement surpassed all others. The Gauls were free and very brave, but in nearly all the states there were two factions,³ the one of which was the plebs, the other the nobility [nobles]. This was a great advantage [use] to Caesar, who united [joined himself] with one and was thus able easily to conquer the other. He also supported⁴ himself and his army on plunder⁵ from [of] the Gauls. Leaders of the greatest skill fought with him, but he conquered them all. The Gauls often revolted [made rebellion], yet Caesar defeated them and made them allies of the Roman people. Finally Gaul, which had been a free land for [through] so many years, came into the hands [power] of Rome.

DESCRIPTION — BY CLAUSE (76-79)

B. G. IV, 1-3

179. While Caesar was subduing Gaul, the Germans kept crossing the Rhine, which is a river between Ger-

¹ Cf. text, III, 8. ² *adipīscor*. ³ *factiō*. ⁴ *alō*. ⁵ *praeda*.

many and Gaul. This people was (composed) of many tribes of which the Suevi were by far the most warlike. The customs of this tribe were strange [new] to the Romans. They had no private fields, but used all in-common,¹ and never² remained for two years on the same (piece of) land. They had two divisions [parts] of their (men). Of these [which] one went forth from the bounds of their fatherland and waged war in behalf of the state, the other remained at home. The next year the former supported the latter, who were in turn led out under arms. A nation thus trained always has an army of great strength. The Suevi, because of their hunting, exercise, and freedom of life, were men of great stature and very strong. They never used wine, and nothing was imported from Gaul by the traders to whom they sold their booty. Whatever horses they had were (capable) of great endurance. By this people the Tencteri had been driven out and had crossed to Gaul when Pompey and Crassus were consuls. The Ubii, a large and prosperous tribe, were the only ones who could withstand the Suevi, but even they were made tributaries. On the other side the fields lay waste for many miles.

MEANS AND AGENCY (80-84)

B. G. IV, 4-7

180. Two other nations had been overcome by the Suevi, and had come to the territory of the Menapii. They tried to cross the Rhine, but were prevented by garrisons stationed-here-and-there. Finally, however, they crushed the Menapii by stratagem,³ and during this winter

¹ *communis*.² *numquam*.³ *insidiae*.

dwelt in their buildings on both banks of the river. This victory was full of danger [dangerous] to the Romans, for the Germans were men of great courage, and Gaul was generally anxious for a revolution. Therefore Caesar was at once informed of this through messengers from his lieutenants. He remembered the inconstancy of the Gauls, and thought: "I must drive the Germans out of Gaul, and I must not trust the Gauls." By forced [very great] marches he hastened to the Rhine. (On) learning of his arrival, the Germans, by means of ambassadors, asked¹ Caesar for a home and for peace. They said to Caesar: "We were driven from our country by the Suevi, who are superior even to the gods in strength and are the only ones who can conquer us. We will be your friends if you will grant these (things) to us. You will not repent this, for each of us will serve your people. But we shall (be) unwilling (to) return to our homes, for the Suevi are our enemies, and we shall be crushed by them."

MANNER AND ACCOMPANIMENT (85-87)

B. G. IV, 8-12

181. Caesar did not avail himself of [use] the friendship offered by the Germans, but ordered them to cross the Rhine with all their (possessions). He told them that they might live with the Ubii. Nothing more could be granted by Caesar, for they could not be trusted. Their ambassadors returned to their camp. Caesar was advancing quickly, but with very great care, and the cavalry was sent ahead. The horsemen of the enemy were absent at this time, in the country of the Ambivariti, foraging and

¹ *rogō*.

pillaging. Therefore the Romans' march could not be prevented, and the Germans again sought from Caesar a day for a truce. This (request) Caesar granted, and he did not advance more than four miles that day. But soon after [after by a little] the Germans caught sight of Caesar's cavalry and, thinking he was attacking with all his forces, the enemy's horsemen, 800 in number, quickly made a charge¹ upon the Romans, and they [who] were thrown into confusion even by this small force. Though the Romans resisted very bravely as-long-as they could, they were finally driven into flight; many horses were stabbed, and many brave men were killed. Piso, one of the slain, was the son of a very distinguished Aquitanian.

COMPARISON (88-94)

B. G. IV, 13-16

182. The Germans repented² of their madness and the next day sent ambassadors to Caesar. He seems [is seen] to have thought thus: "I must drive these men across the river Rhine, for they are gaining more [of] influence in Gaul than is safe for us to allow. I must do everything rather than be defeated by these Germans. I will seize the chiefs who have dared to put themselves into my power [offer themselves to me], and then I will attack the town and put to death as many as possible. This will free Gaul from fear of the Germans and will make the name of the Roman people secure for all time to come [remaining]." After he had done these things, he hastened more quickly than one would think possible [than thought³] to the enemy's camp. This was defended more bravely than

¹ *sīgna īnferō.*² *pænitēt.*³ *opīniō.*

successfully, and some threw themselves into the Rhine and there perished. But much the larger part were slain by the Roman cavalry. Caesar says that the Germans tried to deceive him, but he is himself accused¹ of faithlessness, even by those who think him better in war than any other Roman. Must we not always keep in mind [memory] that Caesar is writing of [concerning] his own deeds? Yes. Caesar had now conquered all the Germans who had made war upon Gaul, but thought that he ought to cross the river.

RELATIONS OF PLACE (95-99)

B. G. IV, 17-21

183. Caesar did not wish to cross the Rhine in the boats which the Ubii had promised him, and so with great quickness he built a bridge of remarkable² strength. By means of this he led his army across into Germany. He did not fight a battle, for the Suevi had withdrawn from their territory to the forests. They had assembled in [into] one place and there were awaiting the Romans. Caesar, however, determined not to fight recklessly, and soon³ returned to Gaul and cut down the bridge. Thence he hastened to set out for Britain, from which country auxiliaries had been furnished his enemies. It was going to be a great advantage to Caesar to find out about the people and places of Britain, for nothing about them was known at Rome, and he afterwards waged many wars with them. He could not find out anything from the merchants (whom he) summoned, and so he sent Volusenus with a ship of war to the island. Meanwhile he himself set out towards

¹ *accūsō*.

² *mīrus*.

³ *mox*.

the Morini, who immediately gave him hostages. Then from all sides he began to gather¹ ships, many of which he had used in Venetia. Some of the Britons sent ambassadors to Caesar, who intrusted to them one of his men of influence and sent them home again.

RELATIONS OF TIME—BY PHRASE (100-103)

B. G. IV, 22-26

184. Volusenus, whom Caesar had sent forward five days before, had returned, and all was now ready. For several days Caesar awaited a favorable wind. Having obtained good weather, he set sail about midnight² for Britain. Throughout this night the wind and tide continued [were] favorable, and on the next day the Romans saw the Britons drawn up on the hills and shore. The Romans remained here at anchor till late in the day [much day] and then proceeded to an open shore seven miles away. At the same time the enemy sent their cavalry thither, and shortly [a little] after followed with all their troops. They bravely attacked the Romans, who were attempting to disembark; and a very fierce battle was fought. The Romans had to do everything at the same time, but Caesar sent the war ships to their aid, and the standard-bearer of the tenth legion led them against the enemy. This man the soldiers followed, — some from one ship and others from another. Encouraging one another [among themselves], they approached the shore, and within a short time put their enemies to flight. Caesar's cavalry had not been able to reach the island, and so he could not pursue the enemy very far [long].

¹ *cōgō*.

² *tertiā ferē vigiliā*.

RELATIONS OF TIME—DATES (104–106)

B. G. IV, 27–33

[Hereafter date each exercise according to the Roman method]

185. Caesar had sailed from Gaul at midnight on the 26th of August. Disembarking on the 27th, he fought the battle of which we have written above,¹ and the enemy withdrew from the coast. On the next day, through ambassadors, they begged Caesar for peace and were pardoned by him. On the 30th they sent a part of the hostages which Caesar had demanded, and on the 1st of September all the Britons had returned to their homes, and the island seemed to be subdued. But on the 10th there occurred a tempest which shattered many of the Romans' ships and drove others over the deep to the continent. On learning this the chiefs began immediately to gather troops, and a few days later [after] attacked a legion which was foraging. Caesar knew they had some new plan in mind, for hostages were no longer² sent to him, and so he had prepared for an attack. At the same time he had been repairing his fleet, using what was of use from [of] the wrecked ships. And also he was providing grain for his soldiers in case [if] he should have to remain in Britain during the winter. They now surrounded this legion with their chariots, which were of great service to them in battle, for they threw the Romans into confusion.

RELATIONS OF TIME—BY CLAUSE (107–111)

B. G. IV, 34–38

186. As soon as [when first] Caesar was informed of this attack, he hastened to the assistance of his men, and

¹ *suprā.*

² *iam.*

the enemy soon withdrew. After the legion had been led back in safety, Caesar kept the troops in camp for several days on account of storms. The Britons improved [used] this time (in) bringing together larger forces than before. Caesar also had obtained a few horsemen, for in the former battle, as¹ we know, he had been unable to pursue the enemy (after they were) put to flight. While the Britons were coming, the Roman battle line was being drawn up, and, when the battle had begun, it made a fierce attack upon them. The latter quickly fled, and the cavalry pursued the fugitives [fleeing] until they reached their town. They at once promised hostages, and peace was made with them. Caesar was waiting until he could sail with his weakened ships, and after a few days, obtaining good weather, he set out for Gaul with all his men. Because of his victories in Britain and Gaul there was a thanksgiving at Rome. This account² tells of Caesar's first invasion of³ Britain. In the next book we have a better account of the island, its people, and their customs.

USE AND SEQUENCE OF TENSES (112-114)

Caesar's Relations with the Germans

187. When Caesar first came to Gaul, he found (that) the Germans had been there before him. The Gauls had made use of their aid in the contentions between the factions of their states, but they had now for a long time been repenting of this, for the Germans were a people of great power and wished to seize the fields of Gaul. Caesar first had to defeat Ariovistus, one of the most powerful kings of the Germans. Of this war he writes in the first

¹ *ut* with Indicative.

² *memoria*.

³ *incursiō in* with Accusative.

book. New bands, however, kept crossing the Rhine after¹ Ariovistus had been driven out; for the Gauls were unable to defend themselves, and Caesar, the only one on whom they could rely, was subduing rebellions among the Belgians, the Veneti, and the Aquitani. When¹ these wars had been brought to an end, he hastened with great quickness toward the river Rhine. The Tencteri with all their (belongings) were wintering in the villages of the Morini; but Caesar immediately crushed them by stratagem [ambush]. Then he determined to carry the war into Germany and to prevent more from crossing [to cross] the Rhine. Therefore he built a bridge and led his army over, but eighteen days after that, he returned to Gaul and destroyed that (famous) bridge. In the sixth book he writes (that) he went again to Germany, and tells of some strange things about which we know better.

CAUSE (115-118)

The Invasion of Britain

188. Caesar writes of two invasions of Britain, one of which was made immediately after he returned from Germany. Since he knew nothing about the island, he sent in advance a lieutenant who was worthy of his confidence.² Through fear some of the Britons sent hostages to him. (On) setting out from Gaul he left a garrison, because (as he writes) he wished to have a safe retreat³ to the continent. After a hard [keen] fight, he forced his enemies into the interior; but because of the injuries to [of] his fleet the Britons dared to attack the Romans. While some were repairing the ships, he led the rest

¹ Express in two ways.

² *fidēs*.

³ *receptus*.

against the enemy and defeated them in battle. Since Caesar [Caesar, since he] desired to return to the continent on account of the time of year, he gave them the peace (they) sought and quickly left Britain. The following year he again went to the island. He ordered Dumnorix to go with him because he [who] was hostile¹ to the Romans; but Dumnorix fled. Caesar pursued and put [having pursued put] him to death for the sake of an example. Again his fleet was wrecked, and he could not leave the coast, because he had to repair the ships. Nevertheless very many tribes were defeated before he went back to Gaul.

PURPOSE—BY PHRASE (119-123)

B. G. I, 1-3

189. Nations have always been eager for new territory. Usually² this is accomplished under the leadership of some man of great influence and valor. Among the Helvetians, who lived toward [under] the east, a man of this kind arose during the consulship at Rome of Marcus Messala and Marcus Piso. This man was called Orgetorix and was of noble-birth, brave, and popular among [acceptable to] the common people. The Helvetians surpassed the majority [greater part] of the Gauls in war, for they often went from their country to fight with the Germans. Their country was too narrow for their desires, and for this reason Orgetorix easily persuaded them to his plan³ of emigrating to other parts of Gaul. For carrying out this plan, the Helvetians had to prepare everything within two years, for they had determined to depart in the third year. They also tried to make peace with those states through

¹ *inimicus*.

² *vulgō*.

³ *cōsilium*.

which they intended [had in mind] to march. For this embassy they chose Orgetorix. Since he had formed a conspiracy for seizing the power, he gladly undertook this. He was assisted¹ not only by the nobility of his own state, but by two powerful men among the Sequani and the Aedui. It was also to his advantage [use] that [because] he had married his daughter among the Aedui. Of his purpose² the Helvetians knew nothing, but were making everything ready for their departure.³

PURPOSE—BY CLAUSE (124-128)

B. G. I, 4-8

190. When the magistrates were informed through one of their retainers of this plot of Orgetorix, they wished to bring him to trial, that the law might be enforced. But fearing that he could not escape, and that they would burn him to death, he committed suicide. The Helvetians, nevertheless, were waiting only⁴ until all things were ready, and on March 24th, as some say, they set fire to their towns and started toward the Rhone. At this time Caesar had for-the-first-time been made proconsul of Gaul, and he determined to hinder them from passing through the province. The Helvetians sent the noblest of their race to him to ask that an opportunity of doing this be granted them. But Caesar wished (for) more [of] time and ordered them to return to him on the 13th of April. When they came to ask his purpose, he forbade their crossing [them to cross] the Rhone; and when they attempted to do this by force he easily repulsed them. That he might more easily overcome them,

¹ *adiuvō.*

² *mēns.*

³ *profectiō.*

⁴ *tantum.*

he had meanwhile brought together as many troops as possible and had fortified many places on this side of the Rhone.

RESULT (129-133)

B. G. I, 9-13

191. The Helvetians had been so hindered by Caesar at the Rhone that they were crossing into Gaul by the only other way, through the country of the Sequanians. Dumnorix, one of those who had assisted Orgetorix, brought it to pass that the Sequanians were no longer unwilling to allow the Helvetians to make their way through the passes of the mountains. Since so large a multitude can not be kept from doing harm, it now happened that the Helvetians had laid waste the fields of the Aeduans. The latter immediately sent to Caesar to ask for aid, and, as they had for years been friends of Rome, Caesar could not wait until they had nothing left with which to resist. Caesar had gathered his forces and had marched so quickly that within thirty days he was at Geneva ready for battle. When he heard from the Aeduans of their wrongs, he did not hesitate¹ to go to their assistance. (Being) informed through scouts of their line of march, he attacked them so suddenly that he crushed one canton, and the others sent ambassadors to him.

CONDITIONS—SIMPLE STATEMENT (134-137)

B. G. I, 14-18

192. Even if Caesar felt [was] conscious of any outrage (at the hands) of the Helvetians because the Romans had

¹ *dubitō*.

been defeated by trickery¹ many years before, he blamed them more for their recent deeds. If prosperity is sometimes granted to the wicked, it often results² that they grieve more when the change comes. And Caesar made some such reply [replied some such things] to the Helvetians when they boasted³ of their former victories. They however said: "If you do not make peace with us, we will bring upon you the same calamities as [which] we brought upon Cassius." Caesar was indignant at the words [speech] of the ambassadors, but nevertheless made answer: "If you give me hostages so that I may have some control over [power of] your deeds, I will do as you wish." But this they refused.⁴ On the next day they defeated a much larger force of Caesar's cavalry, which gave them greater hope. Meanwhile Caesar, (who kept) following, could not obtain grain for his soldiers. He said to the Aeduans: "If you wish our aid in this war, furnish us grain." It happened that Dumnorix was using his influence to defeat Caesar, and to keep his own place among the Aeduans. All this was discovered by Caesar, who had commanded Liscus to tell him all.

CONDITIONS—POSSIBLE AND CONTRARY TO FACT (138-141)

B. G. I, 19-25

193. Caesar feared that the influence of Dumnorix would become of so great (weight) among the Gauls that Divitiacus would be driven out. But at the exhortation of the latter that Dumnorix be spared, Caesar merely warned him to do better. If to-day⁵ you and I were in such danger, we should have great fear, but if we should

¹ *dolus* (in plural).

² *fiō*.

³ Use participle.

⁴ *recūsō*.

⁵ *hōdiē*.

escape so easily, should we not be glad?¹ Caesar had planned to attack the enemy the next day. To gain² the victory more easily, he sent Labienus ahead to seize a mountain. "If we could (possibly) attack the enemy at the same time, we should defeat them." Afterwards he sent Considius to inform him of Labienus. If Considius had not been terrified, the enemy would have been defeated at once, but he reported what was not true. Even then victory would have been gained, had not Caesar feared that Labienus was cut off by the enemy. Late in the day it happened that the truth was discovered, but the Helvetians had moved on. Caesar could not follow farther, for his men had no food. If the enemy had proceeded, they could have reached [come through to] Aquitania before Caesar could pursue. But they turned from their way and attacked the Romans (who were) in battle line both half way up and on the top of a hill.

CONCESSION AND PROVISIO (142-145)

B. G. I, 26-30

194. Although the Helvetians fought with great valor, they (were) defeated (and) withdrew to a hill near by. Caesar's soldiers followed so fiercely that they gained possession of the camp. The Helvetians had to leave all and depart by night towards the north.³ Even if Caesar delayed a few days, he nevertheless prevented the neighbors from assisting the enemy with food. The result was that the Helvetians soon after this came to him to beg for peace. Though they had been his enemies, he determined to spare them, provided that they would⁴

¹ *laetus*. ² *adipīscor*. ³ *septentriōnēs*. ⁴ First periphrastic conjugation.

obey his orders. He wished to make use of them, for their country was now vacant, and he feared the Germans would seize it. Accordingly he ordered the Helvetians to return home and to rebuild the villages (they had) burned. They had gone from Helvetia because (as they said) their territories were so limited. Do you remember Orgetorix, the leader in [of] this movement [thing]? Now, however, there was enough land, for from about 350,000 there were left only 100,000. The number of those killed in this short war was so great that we wonder. Some of the Gauls came to ask Caesar for a council, and, although he had no power over them, he appointed a day for this council of all Gaul.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE—DECLARATIVE SENTENCES (146-150)

B. G. I, 31-34

195. Write *A* in indirect discourse, depending on *lĕgātī dīxērunt* : —

A. In common council we have decided to seek aid from you. But you must not disclose what we shall say of the Germans, for they will inflict tortures upon us. They first came hither¹ to bear aid to the Averni, and then they settled in the land of the Sequanians, which is much better than their own. The Aeduians have always been your allies, and you must conquer their enemies, because they intend to do what the Cimbri did many years ago [before]. Therefore you will benefit² yourself no less than Gaul. Ariovistus is their king, and he [who] is no longer endurable. For this reason we shall depart from our homes.

¹ *hūc*.

² *prōsum*.

B. Caesar replied that he would send a messenger to Ariovistus to beg him to¹ come to a conference; that he had hopes that the king would do what he asked [should have asked]. When ambassadors were sent to Ariovistus, the latter said that he would not hold a conference with Caesar and did not dare to trust the Romans. Besides, he said that he did not consider [think] that Caesar had any business in Gaul outside of² the Roman province.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE—CONDITIONAL SENTENCES (151-152)

B. G. I, 35-39

196. Write *A* in indirect discourse, depending upon *Ariovistus respondit*:—

A. If I were seeking any favor [thing] of you, I would come to you. But I neither can do this nor do I promise to return the hostages to the Aeduans. If they had not made war on me, I should not have injured³ them. Since they have done so and were defeated, they now pay tribute to me. You did me a kindness at Rome when through your efforts [you] I was recognized [called] as a king. If, however, I shall be [shall have been] hindered by you in my rights, my former⁴ friendship will not benefit you. If my men were not invincible, they would have been conquered by the Gauls. Therefore I do not fear the Romans more than my former enemies.

B. Caesar was informed that the Germans would take Vesontio if he did not bear relief [aid]. He thought he ought not abandon to the enemy so great a supply of arms and hastened by forced marches to the town of Vesontio. It was said that the Germans would easily defeat the

¹ 126.

² *extrā*.

³ *noceō*.

⁴ *vetus*.

Romans if a battle should be fought, for the former were men of greater stature than the latter. The army was greatly disturbed by the reports [words], and they say that the camp would have been abandoned and the Romans would have gone home, had not some been held by (feelings of) shame.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE—QUESTIONS AND COMMANDS (153-155)

B. G. I, 40-46

197. When some begged permission [that it be permitted them] to return to Rome, Caesar addressed his officers: (*Put into indirect discourse.*)

What do I hear? That Romans are afraid? If any one desires to leave me, let him go. Many-times already our fathers have met¹ these Germans and have defeated them. Why should not we? Indeed, I believe Ariovistus will refuse to fight us. Do not fear the scarcity of grain and the long roads. Am I not looking out for the supplies? As to the roads, you can soon judge, for this night I shall advance. The tenth legion will be faithful to me, and with it alone I will meet these Germans. Now return to your legions, and let the brave prepare to follow me.

A few days after this, Caesar, in a conference with Ariovistus, tried to show him how much advantage [good] Rome had been to him and what he ought to do for her. Ariovistus told Caesar why he suspected that his friendship was pretended, and how he could gain true friends at Rome if he should kill Caesar. Caesar writes that then Ariovistus ordered his cavalry to attack the Romans, and that thus the conference was broken off.

¹ *occurrō.*

INFORMAL INDIRECT DISCOURSE AND ATTRACTION (156-157)

B. G. I, 47-54

198. Although Ariovistus had broken off the conference which had been held, he asked Caesar to meet [come together with] him again. But Caesar decided that he ought not trust him a-second-time. Ariovistus seized the ambassadors of the Romans, because (as he said) they had come to harm him. To see whether they would join in battle or not, Caesar ordered his troops to be led out each day. If the Germans had not thought it was not permitted-by-the-gods, they would have contended with Caesar when he gave them an opportunity of doing so. Although they had great strength [were able much] in cavalry and thought themselves superior to the Romans, they relied so much on the lots that they did not intend to fight until there was a new moon. Caesar found out why they did not wish a battle, and having drawn up his forces with great care, he quickly made an attack, and after fierce fighting, put them to flight. Ariovistus, however, was one of the few who escaped across the Rhine. This victory greatly increased¹ Caesar's influence in Gaul. Then Caesar set out to do what seemed advantageous for the state, and the army was led into winter quarters.

¹ *augeō*.

EXERCISES — NEPOS

Words connected by hyphens are to be translated by a single word, e.g. *were-in-command-of*. Words in round brackets are to be omitted in translation. Square brackets indicate the Latin rendering. Figures in heavy type refer to the sections of the Introduction. — See Caution, p. 53.

ARRANGEMENT OF THE SENTENCE (1-6)

MILTIADES I-II

199. Miltiades, who was very eminent at Athens,¹ was sent to the Chersonesus² by the Athenians. They selected him (in accordance with) the reply of the Pythia; for they had sent men to Delphi to consult³ the god, and he had bidden them take Miltiades (as) their leader. Miltiades then set out for Lemnos, which island he tried⁴ to bring under the protection of the Athenians. As the inhabitants laughed⁵ at (him), and he had no time to delay [of delaying], he departed to the Chersonesus. Many (of the) Athenians had set out with him from Athens.² With these he soon routed the barbarians and gained possession of the whole country. After he had settled⁶ the colonists here, he again⁷ went to Lemnos. The inhabitants, not daring to resist, yielded to him. The other islands were then brought under Athenian rule.

SIMPLE AGREEMENTS (7-10)

MILTIADES III-IV

200. Miltiades and the Greek chiefs, who had followed King Darius from Asia, were left (as) guardians of the

¹ 97. ² 96. ³ 124. ⁴ *cōnor*. ⁵ 117. ⁶ 108. ⁷ *rūrsus*.

bridge over [in] the Danube [river]. By this bridge Darius had led his troops across the river, and was making war upon the Scythians. Messages were soon brought to the guards of the bridge (that) the Scythians¹ were pressing Darius hard. Immediately² Miltiades said to the other guards: "We will cut down this bridge and leave Darius and his army across the river. There they will perish within³ a few days. We will then free Greece (from) Persian rule." The other Greek leaders shrunk from this plan, for their own power depended upon the sovereignty of Darius. (As there were⁴) so many privy (to his plan) Miltiades did not dare remain in Thrace, but set out from the Chersonesus for Athens.

Darius returned safely from Europe, and after preparing⁴ a large fleet sent it to subdue⁵ Greece; for his friends told him that the Athenians¹ were his enemies. This fleet was first brought to Euboea. This [which] was quickly taken, and all its inhabitants were sent to the king.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATIONS. TENSES (11-15)

MILTIADES IV-VI

201. Darius intended to subdue Greece, and alleged (as) an excuse (that) the Athenians had given aid to the Ionians. The Athenians (were) greatly disturbed by the approach of the Persians (and) sought aid of [from] the Lacedaemonians. While a messenger was going to Lacedaemon, they had to choose ten generals. These men were-in-command-of the army, and had to decide where they ought to fight. Some wished to defend the city; others, to meet the enemy on the battlefield [in battle line] even with their

¹ 147.² *statim*.³ 100.⁴ 22.⁵ 124.

small forces. The Lacedaemonians could not aid [send aid to] them at this time, and so the Plataeans (were the) only¹ (ones who) assisted them. Yet Miltiades led forth the troops of the Athenians, and pitched camp in a spot where the trees were scattered-here-and-there. In this way he thought he would² hinder the Persian cavalry. When Datis, the Persian leader, saw that they were-eager to fight, he immediately joined battle, but, routed by the valor of the Athenians, he had to-retire-to [seek] his ships. As a reward for this victory the Athenians placed the portrait of Miltiades first among their generals. For the battle of-Marathon³ was painted in the Poecile at their command.

USES OF THE INFINITIVE (16-20)

MILTIADES VII-VIII

202. The Persian had withdrawn from Greece, but was still able to hold many islands. These [which] the Athenians wished to take vengeance upon [pursue with war], because they had aided the Persian with their fleets. Therefore they put Miltiades in charge of⁴ their forces. When he had compelled⁵ many to return to their allegiance, he came to Paros. This [which] island he could not win-over by persuasion [speech], for the Parians thought that the Persian fleet would support⁶ them. Accordingly Miltiades besieged the city, and was on the point of capturing it, when a grove in the distance accidentally caught fire. Both (parties) thought that the royal fleet was approaching; and Miltiades, burning his vineae and testudo, returned home unsuccessful. The Athenians thought that he had been corrupted by the king, and fined him heavily [punished

¹ *sōlus*.

² 147, 150.

³ 65.

⁴ Sec. IV, text.

⁵ 109.

⁶ Sec. V, text.

him by a large fine]. This money was not paid by Miltiades, and he died in prison from the wounds [which] he had received near Paros. The Athenians had punished Miltiades, not because of this charge, but because his power seemed [to be] too great. Besides, they feared he would¹ be a tyrant.

ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE (21-24)²

THEMISTOCLES I-V

203. In the reign³ of Xerxes the Persians sent a very large fleet and army against Greece, but these were defeated by the foresight of one (man). For at Athens lived Themistocles, who, (when) disinherited by his father, had devoted himself to (the interests of) the state. This (man) was very skillful in naval warfare, and by his advice the Athenians had built a fleet with the state money. When the approach of Xerxes was known, the Athenians asked the god how⁴ they should protect themselves. When he had replied: "By wooden walls," Themistocles declared (that) the ships were the "wooden walls." So the Athenians, abandoning the city, hastened⁵ to Euboea with their fleet of two hundred ships. (Although) they defeated the barbarians here, they withdrew because the Persians had captured Thermopylae. The allies of the Athenians wished to return (to) their homes, when they saw Athens destroyed by fire. But Themistocles compelled them to fight at⁶ Salamis. For, sending a messenger to the king, he persuaded him to⁷ attack the Greeks immediately. On doing this he was conquered by the fleet of Greece. Fearing a greater disaster, the king then returned to [into] Asia.

¹ 127. ² Use the Ablative Absolute where it is possible.

³ *rēgnō, rēgnāre.* ⁴ *quō modō*, 153. ⁵ *mātūrō.* ⁶ *apud.* ⁷ 126.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS (25-31)

THEMISTOCLES VI-X

204. Was Themistocles less great in (time of) peace? No, for he established the triple harbor of the Piraeus, and fortified it by walls. Did he not surround the city itself with walls? Certainly, but not at first. When he tried to restore the walls of the city, the Lacedaemonians forbade the Athenians to do it. How did they rebuild them then?¹ Themistocles went to Lacedaemon and delayed matters [things] until the walls were² built sufficiently high. This he learned from his colleagues, who had now come to Sparta. Did the Spartans hear (of) this? Yes, but they humored Themistocles, and sent three legates, holding the highest position, to investigate [the thing]. With them went the other Athenians, (but) not Themistocles. Why did not he return also? The Lacedaemonians held him as a hostage; but when their own ambassadors arrived at Athens they were not allowed to go until Themistocles had been² sent home. Several³ years later he had to flee for safety to Asia, because he was accused of treason. King Artaxerxes gave him many gifts, for he hoped by his counsel to crush⁴ Greece. But Themistocles died at Magnesia and was buried near the city.

OBJECT CASES—I. ACCUSATIVE (32-39)

ARISTIDES AND PAUSANIAS

205. The Athenians called Aristides 'the Just,' because he was so upright [of so great integrity]. When he was being exiled, he asked a man why he desired to banish

¹ *tandem*. ² 111. ³ *aliquot*. ⁴ Future Infinitive of Indir. Disc. 148.

Aristides. He [that one] replied: "Because all call him the Just." Yet this same integrity gave Athens the supremacy of the sea. For when Pausanias was conducting himself too arrogantly at Byzantium, the Greek states joined the Athenian alliance, and chose Aristides as their leader. Pausanias had become too elated by his victory at Plataea. When the golden tripod was set up at Delphi because of this victory, he had written on (it) that he himself had defeated the Persians. This inscription was cut out by the Spartans. Later, at Byzantium, as has been stated above,¹ he conducted himself arrogantly, and almost demanded royal honors of the allies. For this [which] he was called home by the ephors and fined. Returning [when he had returned] (to) Byzantium of his own accord, he wrote letters to the Persian king, in which he promised to subdue Greece for him, and expressed the hope [hoped] that he would give him his daughter. When this was learned, (he was) again recalled to Sparta (and) was imprisoned, but later he was set free, because he could not be convicted. The ephors then asked a favor of a certain Argilius, a trusted slave of Pausanias. This man betrayed Pausanias to the ephors, but he escaped to a temple. The doors of this [of which] (temple) were then walled up, and here perished in disgrace the conqueror of Plataea.

OBJECT CASES—2. GENITIVE (40-45)

CIMON

206. Do you remember the hard fate of Cimon? According to Athenian laws he was detained in the public prison, because a large sum of [much] money, his father's

¹ *suprà.*

fine, had not been paid. We pity this illustrious¹ son of Miltiades, but remember the great love of his sister. When the wealthy but ignoble Callias wished to marry her, she declared that she would marry² him when he had paid Cimon's fine. On being thus freed, Cimon quickly became powerful with the army, which under his command [he being leader] defeated his country's enemies and captured great spoils. With these he adorned the Acropolis of Athens, but because of his great power was soon exiled by his ungrateful citizens. When the Lacedaemonians declared war on Athens, they repented of their jealousy of Cimon. After his recall [having been recalled] he did not keep in mind the deed of his fellow-citizens, but strove to restore peace between Athens and Sparta. After this had been gained, having gone to Cyprus he had subdued the larger part of the island, when he died of disease. Athens had never had a man of such liberality. Every Athenian enjoyed his garden and its fruit. His property, his services, did not fail any who needed his help. For a long time Athens mourned his loss [missed him].

OBJECT CASES—3. DATIVE (46-51)

LYSANDER

207. Lysander won his reputation rather because of the insubordination of the Athenians than because of his own valor; for they had not been obedient to their commander, but had left the fleet unguarded.³ Easily getting possession of this fleet, Lysander was greatly puffed up by his victory, and strove to hold all Greece in his power. Banishing all the enemies of Sparta from the states of

¹ *clārus*.

² *nūbō*.

³ *inānis*.

Greece, he put in power over these states men [those] who favored his own interests. For he aimed at becoming [he sought to become] king of all Greece. First he tried to remove the kings of Sparta by corrupting the god, but he could not persuade the priests at Delphi or Dodona. Then he set out for the shrine of Jupiter Ammon in [into] Africa; but not only could he not corrupt the priests there, but he was accused by them before the magistrates of this crime. The judges, however, acquitted him, and he was later sent to the aid of the Orchomenians. In this war the Thebans slew him. He had always acted avariciously and treated the allies cruelly. Once,¹ fearing [for himself] the odium of his fellow-citizens, he asked Pharnabazus for a testimonial of his integrity. On receiving this, he handed it to the ephors, who read in it not the praise, but the condemnation² of Lysander.

OBJECT CASES—4. ABLATIVE (52-57)

ALCIBIADES I-V

208. All (men) wondered that one man could have [in one man there could be] such diverse gifts as Alcibiades. He was at once painstaking and industrious, dissolute and lustful, a man of great virtues and of great vices. Shrewd in counsel, he persuaded the Athenians to declare war on Syracuse, and to elect him general for the war [for carrying on the war]. As he was on the point of³ setting out, almost all the Hermae throughout the city were overthrown, which occurrence [thing] made the people fear for their liberty. When Alcibiades noticed that all thought he desired to get possession of the city, he urged his enemies to hold⁴

¹ *semel*.

² *accūsātiō*.

³ Cf. *Milt.* sec. VII.

⁴ 126.

an investigation while he was present [he being present]. They could not injure him at that time, and so remained silent until he had reached Sicily. Then they accused him of sacrilege [because he had profaned the sacred rites], and he was ordered home [that he should return home] for trial. Fearing that his fellow-citizens were estranged from him, he fled to Lacedaemon, where by his talents he aided the Lacedaemonians. He was so shrewd in counsel that the Lacedaemonians sought to kill him, for they feared that he would be restored to favor with the Athenians. Alcibiades perceived this, and withdrew from Sparta to Tissaphernes. Shortly after he returned to Athens, having won such victories that Lacedaemon begged for peace.

PASSIVES (58-62)

ALCIBIADES VI-XI

209. The Athenians had been persuaded that they had suffered adversity [adverse things had happened to them] because Alcibiades had been banished by them. Yet, although¹ they flocked to the Piraeus to see him, and although laurel wreaths were bestowed on him by the state, as² upon an Olympic victor, he soon fell again into disfavor, when he failed to [did not] take Cyme. After he learned that they had put another in his stead, he withdrew to Thrace, where he gathered an army and enriched himself by plunder. Here he showed his love of country; for when Lysander, the Spartan, was protracting the war in order that he might exhaust the resources of the Athenians, Alcibiades came to Philocles and promised to³ drive Lysander from Thrace, or to force

¹ 142.

² *ut*.

³ Future Infinitive, 148.

him to make peace. Philocles, however, not only was unwilling to do what Alcibiades urged, but even gave Lysander a chance to destroy his army. Alcibiades, after losing all his possessions, fled to the satrap, Pharnabazus. At first Pharnabazus received him kindly, but afterwards, when the Lacedaemonians demanded that Alcibiades should be killed, ordered his men to slay him. They tried at first to accomplish this by setting fire to his house [his house having been fired]; but as he was on the point of escaping from the flames they had to slay him with missiles.

POSSESSION (63-67)

THRASYBULUS

210. For some reason, many (men) who have been very valiant and have freed their country from tyrants, have not gained¹ great renown among their (people). So Thrasybulus excelled all in merit, but others profited by his deeds [made his deeds of profit]. Thrasybulus had, however, the special glory of driving out the thirty tyrants. When he had (but) thirty men with him, the tyrants despised him; but therein lay his safety [this was to him for safety]. For he increased his forces while they were slow in pursuing him. Later, he seized Munychia and killed Critias, the chief of his enemies, who with his (men) had assaulted his position. When the forces of Critias were withdrawing to the city, Thrasybulus spared all except the tyrants themselves. These were punished by exile, and their goods were confiscated. All others, who had not been (associated) with them in the city, were not punished for² their previous misdeeds. The law of amnesty

¹ *cōnsequor.*² 43.

was the special merit of Thrasybulus. In recognition of [for] his services, the people gave him a crown of olive branches. With this small gift he was content, and escaped the envy of his fellow-citizens. While he was waging war in Cilicia as a general, the barbarians sallied forth from their town and killed him.

DESCRIPTION—BY PHRASE (68-75)

CONON

211. In her misfortune Athens had a general of great skill and carefulness. Indeed, when Lysander had conquered the Athenian fleet at Aegospotami, and the Spartans were about to besiege Athens, Conon sought every (means) by which he might protect [be for a defense to] his country. As at this time Tissaphernes, the royal satrap, had formed a league with the enemies of Athens, Conon sought aid of Pharnabazus, who was not only a satrap but a son-in-law of the king. He was a man of great judgment, and appointed Conon general of his forces. When Agesilaus, on the overthrow of Athens, attempted to wrest Asia from the Persian by the aid of Tissaphernes, Conon opposed him until the Athenians declared war on the Lacedaemonians. At this time Artaxerxes, the great king, did not know that Tissaphernes had revolted from him. But on the departure of Agesilaus, Pharnabazus sent Conon to the king to accuse Tissaphernes. When Conon had come, he, with great prudence, handed to the chiliarch, in writing [written], what he had intended to say to the king; for every one who came to the king's presence had to reverence him. This, according to the customs of free Greece, he could not do. On reading¹

¹ *legō*.

these letters, the king declared war on Tissaphernes and the Lacedaemonians; and also ordered war galleys from the maritime states. Conon was put in command of these, and soon routed the enemy. By this victory he freed Athens and all Greece from Spartan rule. Afterwards he was imprisoned, because he tried to bring Ionia again under Athenian rule.

DESCRIPTION—BY CLAUSE (76-79)

DION I-IV

212. Dion of Syracuse was connected with both the Dionysi. By nature he was of a kindly disposition, and disliked the cruelty of the elder Dionysus; but because of his relationship he remained [was] intimate with him. What riches his father had left him were increased by Dionysus, who had also given him his own daughter in marriage. Whatever Dionysus wished done was faithfully executed by Dion. In this way Dion was able to soften the cruelty of the elder Dionysus by his own kindness. Dionysus indeed humored him, and even brought over to Syracuse Plato, who was then at Tarentum. When Plato, later, displeased him, Dionysus, influenced by Dion's prayers, did not sell him (as a slave). When Dionysus was seriously sick, Dion wished him to divide his kingdom; for he desired his sister's sons to have a share. The physicians, who reported this to the younger Dionysus, were compelled to give the sick man a sleeping potion. This act [thing] was the cause of the hatred between Dion and Dionysus the Younger. At first the latter pretended friendship; but when he feared that the people would crush him because they loved Dion, and he himself was not worthy to be loved, he sent Dion to Greece with all his

goods. Then he gave Dion's wife in marriage to another, and gratified the basest desires of the son. Meanwhile Dion began to prepare troops in the Peloponnesus.

MEANS AND AGENCY (80-84)

DION V-X

213. With (but) two ships, Dion attacked Sicily and overthrew the tyranny of Dionysus within three days. He was assisted by Heraclides, who had been expelled by Dionysus. When Dion had recovered his wife, a faction was organized against him by the same Heraclides, who could not calmly endure the power of Dion. By means of his soldiers Dion had Heraclides killed, and then divided among them the money which he took from his opponents. When this failed him, and he could not appease the soldiers except by more money, he lost (the favor of) the Optimates. Then the people began to call him tyrant since he could no longer retain the favor of the soldiers. At this time a shrewd Greek, Callicrates, who thought all were hostile to Dion, formed a conspiracy against him. He pretended to be Dion's friend, and disclosed to him his plan, (saying) that by his help Dion would discover his enemies. When the truth [thing] was almost revealed by Dion's sister and wife, Callicrates hastened to slay him. This he accomplished by means of some youths of great strength, who bound Dion and killed him with a sword [killed with a sword Dion bound]. The Syracusans were greatly displeased at their deed, and buried Dion at the expense of the state. He was called by them the Liberator of his Country, because he had driven forth Dionysus the Younger.

MANNER AND ACCOMPANIMENT (85-87)

EPAMINONDAS I-IV

214. Epaminondas was the noblest¹ of all the Greeks. He was born at Thebes, in-poor-circumstances, but was educated very carefully² by his teachers. Thus he learned singing³ and dancing, arts which at Rome were considered vices, but in Greece praiseworthy. Lysis, the Pythagorean, who had come with his pupils to Greece, taught him philosophy. In the palaestra he aimed at quickness (of movement) because he thought he was in this way better trained for the practice of arms. He cherished truth and honor to-such-a-degree that he preferred to endure poverty rather than to receive money unlawfully [through wrong]. Once Artaxerxes, King of Persia, wished some (favor) from the Thebans. To gain [do] this, he sent Diomedon to Thebes with a large sum of money. This man attempted with the money to bribe Epaminondas. But when he met Epaminondas with Micythus, whom he had bribed, he could not tempt him in any way; for not only⁴ did Epaminondas not receive the money, but he even⁴ compelled Micythus to return to Diomedon the gold which he had received from him and which he had with him. He afterwards sent Diomedon with it to Athens for safety. At Athens he provided a ship in which Diomedon could reach Asia unharmed. There was not gold enough in the world to tempt Epaminondas.

COMPARISON (88-94)

EPAMINONDAS V-X

215. Few Greeks were more eloquent than Epaminondas. Indeed, no Theban was happier than he in repartee [the

¹ *praeclārus*.² *cūra*.³ 16.⁴ *nōn modo . . . sed etiam*.

brevity of reply]. To be sure, Thebans had more strength than brains. Yet a few of them had some [something of] eloquence. Some of the opponents of Epaminondas, who saw that he was well trained in war, preferred the palaestra to the camp. For in this way they hoped to divert (the thoughts of) their fellow-citizens from war. But Epaminondas showed that Thebes was gaining slavery rather than peace by such means; that lasting peace comes from war. The Spartans' power was shaken no less by his eloquence than by his arms, for by it he deprived the Spartans of their allies. Again and again did he endure injuries (at the hands) of his fellow-citizens, and never cherished-resentment-against his country. When they needed his care, he came to their aid without a thought of the previous injury [no memory of the injury being held to]. Once, even, he retained the command longer than he legally could, because he saw that the new generals were inexperienced and that the army would otherwise¹ perish. So he held the command for more than four months. On his return, he was accused of not obeying the law. He confessed, but asked of them to say, after his death, that he had been killed because he had compelled them to overcome the Lacedaemonians. He fell at Mantinea and died when the Boeotians were announcing to him their victory.

RELATIONS OF PLACE (95-99)

PELOPIDAS

216. At Thebes Pelopidas was next to Epaminondas in honor; for under his guidance the Spartans were driven from the Cadmea, and Thebes was freed. The citadel of Thebes,

¹ *aliter*.

the Cadmea, had been seized by a Spartan general, who was marching through their territories to another town. The Lacedaemonians had kept it, although¹ they had fined and dismissed the general. Among the exiles who were driven from their country was Pelopidas. At Athens, whither they had gone, they strove to crush their enemies and free the state. The time for action seemed at² last to have come. From the city (of) Athens Pelopidas led forth twelve youths with their hunting dogs. In this way they came to the house of their confederate,³ (as) darkness (was) coming on. The magistrates of Thebes had too great confidence in their power and were feasting in the city. They did not take the trouble to investigate when they heard that the exiles were in the city. Serious business they put off till the morrow, which never came; for that night Pelopidas with his friends slew them (as they lay) intoxicated. Then quickly summoning all Thebans from the country, Pelopidas drove the Spartan garrison from Thebes. Later, he was slain by Alexander's cavalry, when he was bringing aid to Thessaly.

RELATIONS OF TIME—BY PHRASE (100-103)

AGESILAUS I-IV

217. Xenophon has specially praised Agesilaus, the Spartan general, who made war on Artaxerxes. When his brother, King Agis, died, Agesilaus contested the kingship with his son. For Agis throughout his life had declared that Leotychides was not his son. At his death, however, he recognized him(as) his(son). At this time Lysander, who was then very powerful, voted for Agesilaus, and he [who]

¹ 142.² *dēnique*.³ *socius*.

was declared king. Within a short time he heard that the Persians were preparing fresh¹ troops to send against Greece. He thought it better for the Greeks to send troops to Asia immediately. The power was given him a few days later, and he went quickly to Asia, where he found the royal satraps unprepared. One of them, Tissaphernes, treacherously obtained a three months' truce. During this time he was preparing for war, but Agesilaus kept to his agreement throughout the truce. After the truce Agesilaus ravaged the country of Tissaphernes until winter. Then he withdrew to Ephesus. The next year [year which followed] he declared that he intended to storm Sardis. This Tissaphernes did not believe, and in a few days protected the other sections by his garrisons. Agesilaus, however, actually² moved toward Sardis, and, after gaining much booty, was planning to march against the king, when he was ordered by the ephors to return home. He accomplished this march in thirty days, and defeated the Boeotians and Athenians at Coronea.

RELATIONS OF TIME—DATES (104-106)

AGESILAUS V-VIII [The dates are fictitious]

[Hereafter date each exercise according to the Roman method]

218. After³ the defeat of his opponents at Coronea, on August 14th, Agesilaus led his army to Corinth. Here he waged war for many months and drove his enemies within the city. Yet he desired that the Persians should suffer punishment rather than the Greeks, and he bemoaned the death of so many Greeks. On October 7th he refused to [said he would not] besiege Corinth, for it was

¹ *novus*.

² *verō*.

³ 103.

not fitting to destroy one of the noblest cities of Greece. Meanwhile the Spartan resources were shaken¹ by the battle at Leuctra on July 5th. Agesilaus had not been present at this battle, but he aided the Lacedaemonians with his counsel, when on the first of November Epaminondas led his army to Sparta. Shortly after, on the 10th, some young Spartans tried to desert to Epaminondas, but Agesilaus, who had detected their plans, added some of his own companions to their number, and in this way saved all. After Thebes had become the head of Greece, Agesilaus aided his country with the money of which it was-in-want. All the gifts bestowed on him by others he gave to his people. When he was returning from Tachus, to whose aid [to whom as aid] he had been sent, he fell sick, and died on December 22d.

RELATIONS OF TIME—BY CLAUSE (107-111)

EUMENES I-IV

219. When the Macedonians were powerful, they were vexed that a foreigner should be placed over them. Yet while Philip was king Eumenes of Cardia was his secretary. This position was very honorable, because the secretary was familiar with all the plans of the king. After Philip had been slain, and Alexander had become king [ruled], Eumenes held the same position with him. When Alexander was dying at Babylon, he assigned Cappadocia to Eumenes. He had already intrusted to Perdikkas the guardianship of his children and his empire [his children and empire to be guarded]. This (man) immediately won Eumenes over to himself, before Crateros and Antipater

¹ Cf. *Epam.* VI.

could persuade him to join them. For he recognized his fidelity and saw how useful [for how great use] he would be to him. As soon as the death of Alexander was known, all the others gathered forces to crush Perdiccas. The latter hastened to Egypt against Ptolemy, while Eumenes was left to oppose the European armies until he could return to Asia. Eumenes' forces were untrained, and thought that they were marching against barbarians. Before his troops could learn that their opponents were Macedonians, Eumenes engaged in battle and killed Crateros and Neoptolemus. The rest of the army, after asking peace of him, obtained it, but did not keep their pledge. Eumenes remembered his friendship for Crateros and sent his body home to Macedonia.

USE AND SEQUENCE OF TENSES (112-114)

EUMENES V-VIII

220. Meanwhile, after Perdiccas had been slain by Seleucus in Egypt, Antipater was put in charge of affairs. The Macedonians condemned Eumenes to death together with the other friends of Perdiccas. Antigonus pursued him, but he extricated himself from the place where Antigonus had surrounded him and fled to Nora. Here he was besieged all winter by Antigonus, whose works he kept burning and destroying. His horses were exercised every day in the castle by (means of) a device (of) his. As a result they were sleek when he led them forth the next spring. While he was pretending to treat for a surrender, he escaped with all his men. Olympias, the mother of Alexander, sought his advice before returning to Macedonia from Epirus. The advice that he gave she did not follow ; but

returning she began to prepare large forces to aid him, who alone was faithful to Alexander's son. Eumenes was put in command of her troops, but feared the envy of the Macedonians, who grudged¹ having a foreigner placed over them [that a foreigner should be placed over them]. To escape this envy he erected at his headquarters a tent of Alexander, where all plans were formed. Within a few months he compelled Antigonus to retreat, while his own phalanxes forced him to allow them to pass the winter according to their desires.

EUMENES IX-XIII

221. The following spring Antigonus attempted to pass through a desert to attack Eumenes before his soldiers could assemble. When he had passed over half the distance, Eumenes learned of his approach. The other generals were in despair; but Eumenes sent men with orders [and ordered them] to kindle² fires, so that Antigonus might believe that the troops had been gathered. Because of this Antigonus changed his line of march, and was delayed until Eumenes had assembled his army. After the battle, in which Eumenes was victorious, he was betrayed to Antigonus by his own soldiers from jealousy. Although Antigonus desired to save him, because he saw how useful he could be to him, yet the generals demanded that he should be killed. They envied his valor and felt that (with) him alive they were not secure. While Antigonus was deliberating (as to) what he should do, the army began to revolt. Then Antigonus declared that he would not kill a man who had been his friend, but removed all food from Eumenes. Three days after,

¹ Sec. I, text.² 126.

his generals strangled Eumenes, before Antigonus, who was preparing to march, could forbid it.

CAUSE (115-118)

PHOCION

222. Phocion is better known for his integrity than for his military labors. Because of his poverty, King Philip gave him much money, for he hoped in this way to win¹ his support at Athens. But as Phocion thought his little field would support him and his sons, he refused the money. He also said that he was unwilling to increase the luxurious living [luxury] of his sons by accepting so much money. Many pitied him because he was imprisoned (when) eighty years old; for when he was general, together with Nicanor, Cassander's prefect, he had not prevented Nicanor (from) seizing the Piraeus. When the people had gained the upper hand, they banished Phocion and Demetrius of Phalerum. Phocion fled to Philip, where he was accused by the Athenians of having [that he had] betrayed the Piraeus to Nicanor. Since Philip was unwilling to offend the Athenians, he sent Phocion to Athens to be tried by the Athenian laws. The Athenians were so incensed because of the suspicion of treachery that he was immediately condemned to death, nor was an opportunity even given him to plead his cause. As the multitude hated him, slaves buried him, for no free man dared do it.

PURPOSE—BY PHRASE (119-123)

TIMOLEON

223. Timoleon seems to have existed for the purpose of freeing his fellow-citizens. Not only was he unwilling to

¹ *conciliō*.

have any part [take a share] in the sovereignty that his brother had seized at Corinth, where he was born, but he even thought it better to have his brother killed than (for) Corinth to lose its freedom. It is a proof of his love of liberty that when he had driven Dionysus from Syracuse, and could have been tyrant, he laid down his command and passed the rest of his life as a private (citizen); for he had come to aid the Syracusans after Dionysus, on the death of Dion, had regained his power. Not only did he take care to free Syracuse from tyrants, but he drove the Carthaginians from Sicily. As many cities were deserted because of the war, he summoned fresh [new] colonists from Corinth and Greece to restore them. When by these means he had gained peace for the Syracusans, he laid down the power, as has been said, to preserve liberty. It was to his advantage, also, to do this. For the citizens never envied him afterwards, and even when he became blind permitted him to be drawn to the council by his own mules and to speak from his wagon. After his death the gymnasium where he was buried was called Timoleonteum.

PURPOSE—BY CLAUSE (124-128)

HAMILCAR

224. When the first Punic war was almost ended, Hamilcar, (while) a young man, was sent to Sicily to command the army. The Carthaginians were losing all the island, but wherever he was present they were victorious. To conquer the Romans the more quickly, he never let slip [lost] an opportunity for [of] fighting. After the Carthaginians had become exhausted by the expenses of the struggle, they ordered Hamilcar, who was defending Eryx, to end the war and return home to Carthage. The Roman leader, Catulus,

however, demanded that Hamilcar should not leave Eryx without¹ surrendering his arms. This Hamilcar refused to do, and at last the Romans had to yield to his stubbornness. On his return to Carthage, he learned that it was in great danger because of the mercenaries it had used in this war. Carthage, indeed, did not hesitate to ask help from its enemy Rome. Finally it sought aid of Hamilcar, who was placed in command of the army. He soon drove the mercenaries away from the city and restored all Africa to the power of Carthage. Then, for the purpose of renewing the war with Rome, he crossed into Spain, where he gained great booty. When he was on² the point of carrying the war into Italy, he was slain, and his son-in-law Hasdrubal received the command. In a short time, on Hasdrubal's death, Hamilcar's son Hannibal became leader of the army.

RESULT (129-133)

HANNIBAL I-IV

225. Hannibal surpassed all other commanders, and so in his battles in Italy he always came off victor. But he was weakened by jealousy at Carthage. His hatred of the Romans was indeed so great that he never stopped planning war [warring in his mind] against Rome. Through his influence, not only was Philip, King of Macedon, made an enemy of Rome, but even King Antiochus, whose kingdom was near the Red Sea, made war upon Italy. When the Romans learned of the latter's plans, they tried to make Hannibal an object of suspicion to the king [bring Hannibal under the king's suspicion]. This they did not do in vain; for the king did not doubt [it was not doubtful

¹ *nisi* with Ablative Absolute.

² Cf. *Milt.* VII.

to the king] that Hannibal had been corrupted by them, until he told him the story of his hatred of the Romans. For his father Hamilcar had so cherished [kept] his hatred of Rome and the Romans that he did not take Hannibal with him to Spain until he had sworn never to be a friend of the Romans. When the king had learned this, he made Hannibal a leader in the war.

When Hannibal's father died in Spain, he was placed in command of the cavalry. After subduing many nations and capturing Saguntum, he prepared, when twenty-eight years old, sufficient [of] forces to hold Spain and Africa and to invade Italy. Leading his army into Italy by the Grecian pass, he subdued every tribe that attempted to prevent his reaching Latium. In Italy he defeated all the Roman armies.

CONDITIONS—SIMPLE STATEMENT (134-137)

HANNIBAL V-VIII

226. As no one opposed Hannibal after the battle at Cannae, he remained near Rome several days before returning to Capua. When he was departing for Capua, Quintus Fabius Maximus, who had been elected dictator, shut him up in the narrow passes. "If Hannibal now tries to free his army," thought Fabius, "I shall put him to flight." But Hannibal shrewdly bound lighted fagots to the horns of cattle and by night spread terror in the Roman army at the sight. By this trick he was enabled to lead his army back to Capua without loss. If all his battles in Italy are counted, it can easily be seen that he was a great general, for in all these he came off victorious. If the question is asked why then he did not conquer Rome, the answer must be given that the Carthaginians did not show the same earnestness as he.

They had not defended Spain, and young Scipio, having conquered that country, marched to Carthage. Hannibal was hastily called home from Italy. (Though) conquered at Zama, yet within a few days he was holding new levies. But in the meantime his country made peace with the Romans. Some time later the Romans demanded Hannibal of the Carthaginians. Hearing of this, Hannibal escaped to King Antiochus, whom he soon induced to war with Rome. "If Antiochus follows [obeys] my suggestions, he will be victorious," thought Hannibal. But the king was afraid to wage war in Hannibal's way and so was routed.

CONDITIONS—POSSIBLE AND CONTRARY TO FACT (138-141)

HANNIBAL IX-XIII

227. When Hannibal reached Crete after the defeat of Antiochus, he feared the avarice of the Cretans. For if they should learn that he had a large sum of money with him they would kill him. Accordingly he deceived them by a shrewd trick [plan] and escaped with his property [things] to King Prusias of Pontus. Here he might have remained free from [without] danger, had he not aroused the king against the Romans. First he tried-to-win-over other war-like nations to his plan. If he could crush Eumenes, King of Pergamos, who was a strong-friend of the Romans, the other (measures) would be easy. When accordingly he was about to fight a naval battle [fight with the fleet], he showed his men where Eumenes was and ordered them to attack his ship in-a-body.¹ Indeed, they would have overcome Eumenes, if he had not sought safety in flight. The rest of the fleet, however, could have conquered Hannibal

¹ *universus*.

if they had not been frightened. For Hannibal's sailors threw on board jars in which they had put poisonous serpents. On seeing these, the enemy fled to land. After this victory Hannibal happened to be mentioned at Rome by the ambassadors of Prusias. The Romans thought: "If Prusias keeps Hannibal with him, we shall never be free from plots." Accordingly they demanded his surrender [that he should be given them]. Prusias did not do this, but the Romans surrounded Hannibal's house to seize him. On learning this, Hannibal took poison. For if he had not done so, his most bitter enemies would have killed him.

CONCESSION AND PROVISIO (142-145)

CATO

228. Although Nepos wrote about many Romans, the lives of two only, Cato and Atticus, have been left to us. (When) a young man, the former did not give attention to public-office, but was busy far from Rome. Marcus Perpenna, the ex-censor, tells us that, although he had an inheritance in the territory of the Sabines, he later frequented the Forum, at the suggestion of Lucius Valerius Flaccus. Even if this is not true, we know that he came to Rome and held many public-offices. Although he was made consul and had won a triumph, yet as censor he has left the greatest fame [name]. For he attempted to check the luxury of the Roman people, which was beginning to be a danger to the state. To show his remarkable industry, Nepos states that he was a skillful farmer, a great general, and a pleasing orator. Even when eighty years old he devoted himself to literature. Indeed, even if he had been younger, he could hardly have been more eager in its pursuit. He also wrote a history

of the deeds of the Roman people, in which everything (that was) worthy of admiration was set forth. He told how the Romans waged war with the Carthaginians and other nations, but in his work the leaders of these wars were not named. Do you remember the famous saying of Cato in regard to Carthage?

INDIRECT DISCOURSE—DECLARATIVE SENTENCES (146-150)

ATTICUS I-V

229. Write in indirect discourse.

I. Depending on **Nepōs scrīpsit**: Titus Pomponius Atticus was of the equestrian order and had inherited this dignity from remote ancestors without-a-break. His father, who was not only rich for the times, but especially devoted to literature, educated his son in all the arts, and the boy displayed [there was in the boy] so great aptitude for his work that his high-spirited mates could not endure it calmly, but were stimulated by his zeal. When he was still a young man, his father passed away. To avoid offending the followers of Cinna or of Sulla, he withdrew to Athens on the death of Sulpicius. As he carried his property with him he suffered no loss of his estate and was able to aid the Athenians, whenever they wished to borrow.

II. Depending on **Nepōs scrībit**: Although Atticus would never accept interest from the Athenians, he never allowed the debt to become overdue [to be owed longer than was agreed]. When he was away from Athens and could not prevent it, the Athenians erected statues to his honor [to him]. Even Sulla was captivated by his culture and learning, and tried to bring him back to Rome. But he would not bear arms against his friends and preferred to remain

at Athens. When Cicero was banished, he showed his fidelity to him. On returning to Rome, he won the goodwill of a churlish uncle, who at his death [dying] made Atticus his heir.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE—CONDITIONAL SENTENCES (151-152)

ATTICUS VI-X

230. Write in indirect discourse.

I. Depending on **Nepōs scribit**: Atticus belonged to the party of the Optimates, but did not engage in their civil dissensions. If he had sought honors from Sulla, he would have received them, but he preferred to avoid all suspicion. For this would be troublesome to him, if he should wish to aid his friends during the civil wars. He was sixty years old when the civil war with-Caesar broke out, and although the other Optimates left Rome, when Pompey ordered them to repair to his camp, Atticus remained without (incurring) his displeasure. If his friends at that time wanted money, he gave it to them; nor did Caesar take offense at this [did this offend Caesar].

II. Depending on **Nepōs scribēbat**: On the death of Caesar, when some of the equestrian order wished Atticus to contribute money to the slayers of Caesar, he replied [*put the following also in indirect discourse after replied*]: 'Brutus may use whatever of my means he wishes, but I will not unite with others in this matter.' Later, when Brutus withdrew from Italy, Atticus sent him (a) large (sum of) money. Yet when Antony was declared an enemy by the senate, Atticus prevented the Romans from despoiling Fulvia and her children of everything. He lent her money without interest, although no one at that time thought that Antony would return to Italy.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE—QUESTIONS AND COMMANDS (153-155)

ATTICUS XI-XV

231. Write in indirect discourse.

I. Depending on **Nepōs scripsit**: Who¹ at that time thought that Antony would return victorious to Italy? Yet he did return and remembered the kindness of Atticus, who with the others had feared proscription. For he sent him (Atticus) a guard to bring him without danger to himself. Do not think Atticus did not assist the proscribed, when every one [the common-people] was searching for them. Even after Brutus had been slain at Philippi, Atticus protected as many as he could. How could one think his liberality time-serving! He assisted the unfortunate and preferred to forget rather than to avenge an injury. What can be more noble than this?

II. Depending on **Nepōs scribit**: With all Atticus' wealth his house was more tasty than expensive; his household was composed of well-educated slaves [boys], readers, and scribes. Each one had been born and trained in the house [at home]. Nepos could tell how much Atticus [he] entered as expended each month, for he had seen his expense-books. Why did he have an educated household? He wished to please the mind no less than the palate [stomach] at his feasts. He would neither tell nor endure a lie. In transacting [undertaking] business he believed that he should keep his promise. He never wearied of managing the business of others. Indeed, the affairs of many Roman knights were looked after by him.

¹ Cf. sec. IX, end.

INFORMAL INDIRECT DISCOURSE AND ATTRACTION (156-157)

ATTICUS XVI-XXII

232. Atticus was a favorite with [pleasing to] both old and young. He lived on-intimate-terms with Cicero and Hortensius. He was especially beloved by Cicero, who sent him letters from (the time of) his consulship to the very end of his life. These were published and have been handed down¹ to us. It is thought that they fully describe the changes in the state during that period. Atticus boasted that he had always regarded his sister as his equal and that no (cause for) complaint had ever come between them. Why should one mention that he was fond of ancient history [antiquity]? For he had described in his books the laws and wars of Rome, and even edited the genealogy of illustrious families. He wrote many other books, both in Greek and in Latin. After Octavius became Imperator, Atticus obtained from him what fortune had not granted to any Roman before. For it is said that Caesar pledged his stepson to the granddaughter of Atticus. Whenever Caesar wrote to his friends at Rome in-his-absence, he always informed Atticus what he was reading and doing. (When he was) seventy-seven years old [born] he had a disease, which the physicians at the outset thought of little consequence [despised]. Three or four months later, when the pain became more severe [increased], he determined to abstain from food; for he had noticed that this did not nourish him and only increased his sufferings. Within a few days he died and was buried in the tomb of Quintus Caecilius, near the Appian Way.

¹ *trādō*.

EXERCISES — CICERO

Words connected by hyphens are to be translated by a single word, e.g. *fail-in-its-duty*. Words in round brackets are to be omitted in translation. Square brackets indicate the Latin rendering. Figures in heavy type refer to the sections of the Introduction. Date each exercise according to the Roman method. — See Caution, p. 53.

COMMANDS AND EXHORTATIONS (158-160)

CAT. I, 1-3

233. Catiline, do not abuse our patience. Dare you come into the Senate! Let the guard of the Palatine, the assembling of all good citizens induce you to lay aside your mad purpose [madness]. Know that your conspiracy is exposed. Depart, therefore, from the Senate, from the city. Long ago I ought to have crushed you because of your bold deeds [boldness]. On mere suspicion of sedition our ancestors have often put dangerous citizens to death. Go forth, then, from Rome, if you would escape such a fate [fortune]. Or else¹ change your purpose. No longer plan to destroy the city (while) within its walls. The Senate will not fail-in-its-duty to the state if you remain in the city and plot its ruin. We have long been too merciful, Conscript Fathers, but let us allow this enemy to depart. If he does² not, but, remaining, strives to destroy this city, and to slay each one of us, let not his punishment then keep him waiting a day. Nor ought you to fear, for even if he gives up his plans and remains with us, yet my guards shall watch him as hitherto, and he can no longer plot against the city within the city.

¹ *aliter*.

² Cf. 137.

WISHES (161-162)

CAT. I, 4-6

234. Catiline, would that you had gone into exile, rather than to Marcus Laeca's house that night! For there were assembled your companions in this wicked folly. There, after planning the destruction of Rome, you decided to go to the camp of Manlius, that bold leader of your desperate¹ band. Yet you wished to kill me before your departure, and soon found those who agreed to slay me in my bed. But my house was fortified with stronger guards. I shut out the knights who had promised to free you from your care. Now depart from the city. O that you were already on your way! May you take with you all your accomplices in this crime! You cannot remain longer within this city to plot against the state. All your plans up to this time I have thwarted. Now all the senators, whom you see assembled, all citizens, whose safety is imperiled, know of your conspiracy. Go forth, then, into exile, if you wish, for every man in this city both fears and hates you. May you change your purpose, forget fire and sword, and trust no longer to crime and madness. Then at length the state will be freed from fear.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE (163-165)

CAT. I, 7-8

235. Cicero may have been moved by hatred when he banished Catiline, but he said that he was influenced by pity only. When Catiline boldly entered the Senate, which had been called to pass-judgment on his conspiracy, Cicero told him that he ought to know what the senators thought

¹ *perditus*.

of him and his impious plots. They would not salute him when he entered the senate house — nay, more, they left vacant even the bench on which he sat. Most men would prefer to avoid such an affront, but Catiline would not withdraw from their sight. His country had already suffered much through him. He had injured and plundered her allies, he had murdered her citizens, violated her laws. Would she now suffer herself to be continually in fear on his account? The consul urged him to depart from the city, but he said ¹ he would not ¹ go unless the Senate should so [it] order. The consul, however, would not refer (the question) to the Senate. “Catiline might see,” said ² he, “from the silence of the senators, when the consul ordered him to go into exile, what would be-their-pleasure.” ³ Yet Catiline, long desirous of laying waste the city, could not then be influenced to do this.

CAT. I, 9-10

236. Why should Cicero have thought that Catiline would reform? He had always been a man whom neither fear nor reason could keep from disgraceful-deeds. If he had gone into exile, he would have done so, not because he yielded to the necessities of the state, but that he might bring an impious war on his fatherland. Cicero knew that he had already sent to the camp of Manlius at [to] Faesulae that silver eagle which the army of Marius was said to have borne. What could he mean [wish] by this but [unless] war? When he had gathered his force of abandoned (creatures), he saw in it not-a-single good man. The habits of his whole life had well trained him

¹ *negō.*² *inquit.*³ *placet.*

to be commander of such an army. Cicero knew all this, but thought that if he could drive Catiline [him] into exile, just as he had before this defeated him for [repelled him from] the consulship, his undertakings would be regarded as brigandage, not war. "May he separate himself from the conspirators in-the-city, or, rather, let him take them with him! Then it will be easier for me to save the state," thought Cicero. Cicero did, indeed, drive him from the city, but later had to endure such a storm of unpopularity that he himself went into exile.

CAT. I, 11-13

237. Why did Cicero allow a man who had already been discovered (to be) an enemy to leave the city unharmed?¹ If the custom or laws of his Roman ancestors ought to be heeded,² Catiline should have been thrown into prison, not let loose against the city. Many men at Rome had these same views, and Cicero thought it necessary to answer them. He remembered that many men had won-honor, in previous times, by putting to death the enemies of the state. Consequently he did not fear that he would defile himself, or that any odium would threaten him because of this. But he had noticed that many, even among the senators, could not understand in what danger the state was, and had strengthened Catiline's conspiracy by their weak views. If he had done what he thought ought to be done, these men would say that he was acting tyrannically, and the conspiracy could not be crushed forever. Under these circumstances, Cicero judged it better to let Catiline go forth. He hoped, also, that Catiline would take with him to Man-

¹ *incolumis.*² *pāreō.*

lius' camp all the rascals of-the-city. If he should do this, and at last a wall should separate these from all good citizens, each man would know, without (chance for) doubt, that Catiline was the head of the conspiracy, and the consul could more easily defend the altars of the gods and the homes of men from this impious alliance of crime.

CAT. II, 1-4

238. On the following day, Cicero told the Roman citizens how Catiline, who had plotted the burning of the city, had been driven forth. For Catiline had departed, for Masilia as he said, but really for the camp of Manlius. No longer would the Romans have to fear his plots within the defenses (of the city). Already many, who a little-while before did not believe that Catiline was to be feared, were blaming Cicero because he had not put him to death. How gladly¹ would Cicero have punished him according to his deserts! But he had seen that, if he should [do this], he would be unable, because of the hatred of the people, to overpower his associates. For, although Catiline had led forth many men, yet he had left more in the city — men of noble birth, but heavily in debt, who could even then be seen flitting about the Forum. These were the men, Cicero thought, who should be feared, rather than that army of rascals and bankrupts who had followed Catiline. Yet Cicero might now despise them in-comparison-with the splendid forces of Rome; for he had shown clearly that a conspiracy had been made against the state. He even permitted those like Catiline to leave the city, if they wished. In this way he hoped to relieve the state of poisoners and parricides, infamous women and abandoned men.

¹ *libenter.*

CAT. II, 5-7

239. Happy would Cicero be, could he but remove from the city these intimates of Catiline, who are wasting the means of industry in licentious-living! If their desires were but moderate, they would not have had to mortgage their fortunes. Not only had they done this, but at their feasts they had planned murders and the destruction of the commonwealth. Cicero hoped that by their removal his consulship would free the state from danger and add many years [ages] to the republic; for every foreign nation had been subdued by Gnaeus Pompey, but within (her precincts) the state had to contend with the wickedness of her own-citizens. If these men could be restored (to good conduct), Cicero would use every means to accomplish it. When some said that Cicero had driven Catiline, an obedient citizen, into banishment, Cicero showed how the latter had plotted to kill him; how every senator had left vacant the bench in the Curia, when Catiline approached; how Catiline had already sent to Manlius the well-known silver eagle. If Catiline should not now go to Manlius, but should become-terrified and depart into exile, Cicero would gladly endure the storm of unjust odium, provided he could save the state. However, he knew that Catiline did not intend-to-go; that those who kept saying this feared it rather than complained of it.

CAT. II, 8-10

240. Cicero no longer feared for the state, since Catiline no longer remained at Rome. There were, however, many in the city who had been associated with [associates of] Catiline. To these [whom] he must now turn his attention. They were (composed) of many classes of men, and to each

of them Cicero offered his advice. The most respectable class was still rich, but they had been unwilling to add to their credit by paying their debts. If this class expected to keep [use] their property safe in the common ruin, they were mistaken. Such men were little to be feared and would rather utter threats than bear arms against the state. Another class was of such as expected to gain power in the disturbance of the [in the disturbed] republic. To these the warning must be given that all good citizens would bring aid to their country. A third class remembered the times of Sulla and hoped for new proscriptions; for already they had squandered their money in expensive-luxuries. All the other classes were (composed) of debtors and criminals. It would, indeed, be a good (thing) for Rome if these men should go out into open brigandage; for they would become a nursery of Catilines unless they should go where they might be recognized as enemies. They were such bosom-friends of Catiline that he could not live without them.

CAT. II, 11-13

241. When one contrasts the men who are to form Catiline's bodyguard with the Roman troops, how can he fear the war! Already exhausted by want of everything, Catiline will see arrayed against him the flower and strength of all Italy. Nay, on the one side are all the virtues, on the other, all the vices. So even if men should be lacking in zeal, the very gods would oppose Catiline. Besides this, Cicero has-taken-precautions to have a sufficient guard in the city and to notify the towns of Italy of Catiline's raid. Everything is ready to crush this man, or to check all his attempts. Again and again has Cicero even urged the

followers of Catiline, who have dared to remain in the city, to depart. If they do not do this [which], but think the consul will be remiss, they will find out [perceive] that the prison is still an avenger of impious crimes. Cicero, indeed, intended so to act that the evil only should suffer punishment, and the state be undisturbed by any rioting. Although he desired to act in this way, and hoped to accomplish it by his (personal) efforts, yet he told the Roman citizens that he had undertaken this task, relying on the aid of the immortal gods alone.

CAT. III, 1-3

242. What a glorious empire and what a beautiful city had the gods saved from fire and sword! Surely Cicero ought to have been (held) in honor by the Roman people, since they [who] had been torn from the jaws of fate by his efforts and plans. When the conspirators had almost set fire to [placed fires beneath] the temples of the gods, he had extinguished the flames. Although Cicero had already disclosed the whole plot [all things] in the Senate, he thought that he ought to set forth briefly to the people how it had been found out by him. "You know," said he, "when Catiline was banished from the city, how little you believed my words. How much I had then to fear, if he had not gone to Manlius! His associates in wickedness who had remained in the city were still plotting. I perceived that you must with your own eyes see the mischief before you would provide for your own safety. So the conspirators were watched,¹ and when they tried to bribe the legates of the Allobroges, who had come to the Senate, the opportunity was presented to me for arresting

¹ *cūstōdiō*.

all (of) them. As the Allobroges, with letters to their people, were leaving the city, the praetors seized¹ them near the Mulvian bridge and brought¹ them to me. Although many [and] noble men thought that I should open the letters, I refused to do so, and immediately called the Senate together."

CAT. III, 4-6

243. Write in indirect discourse, depending on **Cicerō dīxit** :

First Volturcius was led in and told the Senate that Lentulus had given him letters urging² Catiline to join forces with the leaders in the city as soon as possible. For they intended to set fire to the buildings and to slaughter [make a slaughter of] the citizens, as soon as he should draw near the city. Then I brought in the Gauls, who declared that they had been urged to carry the letters to their people and to make war on Italy. Besides, Lentulus had assured them that the rule of the city must come to him, for he was the third Cornelius, and the soothsayers had said that the downfall of the government would occur at the feast-of-the-Saturnalia. After this the letters were shown to the conspirators. Each one could recognize his own seal and handwriting; and, although at first they denied the charges of the Gauls [what the Gauls charged against them], finally they confessed all. If they had not convicted themselves by their own confessions, they could have³ denied everything. What did the Senate decide to do? Without any amendment it voted to thank me for my services in freeing the state, and to put Cethegus and the others except⁴ Volturcius under arrest. It

¹ Condense this sentence.

² Omit, but show by construction in the following clause.

³ 141, N.

⁴ *præter*.

was thought that the remaining members of the conspiracy would be crippled by the punishment of these leaders. Lentulus also freed us from any religious scruple in punishing him by resigning his praetorship.

CAT. III, 7-9

244. Write in indirect discourse, depending on **Cicerō** **dīcit** :

Now, fellow-citizens, we have seized all the leaders of this foul conspiracy. Never could we have done this, had Catiline remained here among us. When he was forced from the city, there was no one else to be feared. He [that man] never would have given his letters to barbarian ambassadors; for he had judgment suited to his crime. Although all his plans were met and opposed by me while he was in the city, yet never could I have detected the whole plot so plainly, had he himself been able to undertake the direction of affairs. And yet, fellow-citizens, not I alone, but the immortal gods through me, have managed (the affairs of) the state. Indeed, they have shown their care for us in many ways. Do you remember when all Rome was terrified because the images of the gods had been overthrown and that gilded (statue of) Romulus was struck by lightning? At that time to avoid the civil wars that were approaching our citizens neglected nothing which might placate the gods. They even contracted for a large statue of Jupiter, which you saw erected this morning. Indeed, that Jupiter has saved your city and opposed these wicked men. In no other way would a race hostile to Rome have neglected its own advantage, especially when this opportunity was offered them by our (own) Patricians.

CAT. III, 10-12

245. Write in indirect discourse, depending on **Cicerō dīxit** :

When, Romans, has any people been saved from such pitiable ruin without armies, without bloodshed? You remember how Lucius Sulla, overcoming Sulpicius, banished Gaius Marius and many others from the state; how this place overflowed with the blood of citizens when Cinna was driven from Rome by Octavius. In all those civil strifes each sought the destruction of the other. And yet, what did each aim to accomplish? Not to blot out the name of the Roman people, as Catiline desires, but merely to change the (form of) government. Catiline and his followers would have burned the city and slaughtered you, her citizens, had I not preserved you. His friends have now become my bitter enemies, and it is your (duty) to see that I am not injured by them. For I demand of you no other reward save this—that the remembrance of this day may be cherished in the memory of all good citizens. Although others less worthy of this honor than I may obtain statues, yet let all remember him who preserved this empire from the assault of wicked citizens. What! If I should be killed by these men, surely there is nothing higher to which I should ascend. Now depart to your homes, reverence that Jupiter who has protected you from danger, just as you have often previously done. Remember that I, the consul, will be watchful in-the-interests-of our common-wealth.

CAT. IV, 1-4

246. Senators, why are your eyes turned toward me? Why are you so anxious for my safety? (It is) the state

(that) is in peril; for her safety you ought to take counsel. If to save the state I must endure all tortures, I will do so gladly, if only your wives and children may be snatched from this great peril. Lay aside, therefore, (all thought of) my safety. Even if I should be slain by these men, I should not wish you to perish with me. You must come to a decision to-day in regard to these men whom you have already condemned to imprisonment. When so great a conspiracy has been formed against a state, there should be no delaying, no postponing-action, in the hope that in this way the evil may be crushed. But it is my (task) first to state the two propositions which have been brought to your notice. The one proposes that, as these defendants have long stirred (and are stirring) the people to overthrow the government, they should be punished by death. The other declares that the gods did not establish death as a (means of) punishment, and urges that the punishment should be imprisonment for-life [eternal]. This is, indeed, a severe penalty [of great severity], for even hope is taken away, and only life is left. If Caesar had only insisted on taking away this, with the confiscation of their goods [when he should confiscate their goods], he would have brought them rest from [of] their toil and misery.

CAT. IV, 5-7

247. No doubt it is for my interest that you should agree with [follow the opinion of] Gaius Caesar; for if he should approve your vote, I should have no more trouble, since he is considered friendly to the people. Indeed, if you will recall (the fact) that Caesar, but a few days ago, voted for a thanksgiving in my name, and imprisonment for these men, you can see that the advantage of the state

outweighed all considerations of private peril. He remembers that by the Sempronian law a Roman citizen can be deprived of life only by vote of the people. He forgets, however, that these men, since they [who] have impiously planned the destruction of this city, cannot be regarded (as) citizens, but (as) enemies. Can any punishment be too cruel? If your slave had murdered your children and attempted your own life, would you think any punishment too severe? The attempt of these conspirators was not like that of Gracchus. These are men who have determined to murder us, to burn the city. Be not cruel to your country by any diminution of punishment. If you think I have not sufficient guard to carry out your decrees, you are greatly mistaken. It is to your interest to notice how many, and what classes of men, are present about the senate house. Even the poorest desire this government, these temples, this common liberty, to remain [stand].

CAT. IV, 8-II

248. The zeal not only of those men who were born at Rome, not only of the freedmen who have gained the right of citizenship, — not the zeal of these alone, I say, should be noticed, but especially that of other men who are still in servitude. Although this city is not their country, although they have not liberty — the dearest (possession) of man — yet the audacity of these citizens appalls them, and in their desire [desiring] that this government should continue, they are contributing to its preservation all the goodwill they dare. If you have heard that some have attempted to bribe the needy and ignorant, be not frightened at this, but rather provide for the safety of the Roman people.

To-day you should remember that your country has a leader forgetful of himself, devoted to you, who will not hesitate to execute your decrees. Decide before night what is to be done. I have now performed my consular duty. Granted that your other leaders have become famous by managing well (the interests of) the state, yet I am the only man whom you have honored for saving the state. If by chance I shall be overwhelmed by the multitude of my enemies, I demand of you but one reward [thing]. Let my deeds and the memory of this day be fixed in your minds. Then protect my little son from every danger.

ARCHIAS 1-3

249. If I am able to help the man from whom I received my enthusiasm for [of] culture and literature, surely Aulus Licinius may well demand this of me. For from my boyhood, from my earliest recollection, he trained my mind to learning, my voice to public speaking. Do not think-it-strange that this man cannot defend himself. He has so devoted himself to literature that he shrinks from this kind of speaking in a public assembly. And, Judges, as I am about to plead in behalf of such a man, I beg that I may be permitted to use a form of speech new to this court, yet suited to this case. If you grant me this favor, I am sure you will feel that you ought to add Archias to the number of citizens, if he were not already (one). Born at Antioch, he was trained to culture in the usual [the same which are customary] branches. In a short time he excelled all the learned men in that famous city. Soon after his reputation spread through Asia and Greece, and even here at Rome he was known to many of us as (being) worthy of

our admiration. When Marius and Catulus were consuls, he came to Rome, where he was received by the Luculli. So pleasing was he to these and other noted men that the highest honors were heaped upon him.

ARCHIAS 4-6

250. How was he enrolled as a citizen? When Marcus Lucullus, his friend, set out for Sicily, Archias went with him. Coming to Heraclia on his way, he became a citizen of that state, which has long been on a perfect equality with us as to rights. Some time later the Senate decreed that all who were citizens of allied states might be given (Roman) citizenship, if they then had a residence in Italy, and were enrolled within a certain time. These (conditions) he fulfilled [did]. And yet, when you cannot weaken these (statements) you finally remember that the record-office at Heraclia was burned, and some one of you demands the public records. A foolish request [thing], especially as he made his declaration before Quintus Metellus, a most upright and careful man. Or do you think that the people of Heraclia would not have enrolled him as a citizen? Yet they gave this (honor) to men of much less ability. "If he had been enrolled by the censor, it would prove that he thought himself a citizen; but he was not enrolled." But you know, Gratus, that he not only made a will, but often received legacies from [of] Roman citizens. In doing this he acted as a Roman citizen. But you wonder why I should devote myself to his interests? One reason is that he furnishes me with rest of mind, when I am wearied with the noise of the Forum. Indeed, I am not ashamed to grant some time to reviewing such studies, for by so doing I am better able to aid you all.

ARCHIAS 7-9

251. Do you understand me to say that the illustrious men of whose meritorious deeds we have read in literature were trained by such teaching? It may be difficult to prove this, yet this reply can be made: When we see how much trained natural ability accomplishes, and how able men have been aided in acquiring (a love for) virtue by the study of literature, we wonder how much other men of excellent talent, but untrained, would have accomplished, if they had had the molding-power of education. How much, therefore, should we love and cherish the man who not only shows this result of his teaching, but, if we seek pleasure only, who indeed furnishes us with so refined a diversion? Again and again has Archias recited many excellent verses extemporaneously. Who would think that we should spurn such a poet? Poets are given to man by the gods, and for that reason were called sacred by our own Ennius. Did not seven cities claim Homer as their own, even though he was dead? If the rocks and deserts respond to the song of the poet,—if even wild beasts stop to hear it, shall we not be glad to call [gladly call] Archias our citizen? Who is not pleased at hearing the praises of his own merits? Archias has celebrated Rome by his praises. For the same reason, (a bust of) Ennius was placed in the tomb of the Scipios. Thus many other poets, who have devoted themselves to praising the Roman name, have been cherished by our ancestors. Shall we not adorn Archias also with great honor, and recognize him as our own?

ARCHIAS 10-12

252. Do not think that the Roman people receives less praise because Archias' works are in Greek verse. For

Greek literature is read among all peoples—the Latin only within our own territories. Consequently our praises will penetrate to the farthest bounds of the world. The great Alexander deemed Achilles fortunate to have had Homer as a herald of his valor. And yet he himself had many poets with him, to praise his deeds. In fact, some of our own commanders have even bestowed the citizenship on poets who have written of their deeds. Would any of them have refused Archias, if he had asked it of them? Remember that the Luculli, father and son, and Metellus Pius were his intimate friends. Through them he could have obtained anything, for they gave rich rewards even to poor poets. But why do I defend Archias? Not alone because of these considerations, but also because he has promised to touch in verse upon the events of my consulship. By this he will spread remembrance of me to all the earth. In these praises of me, you also will be praised. Therefore, spare this man, this poet of genius. Nay, rather, let him conduct himself as a citizen unmolested.

MANILIAN LAW 1-4

253. I have to rejoice that, when I am about to speak for the first time in this honored place, I am to devote my time to my friend, Gnaeus Pompey. Hitherto I have been so busy with [in] the defense [danger] of private citizens that I could not aspire to the influence of this position. But now that you have shown your judgment of me, by electing me praetor, this avenue to [of] glory has been opened to me, and I will bring to this place whatever ability I may have. But to start at the beginning, two powerful kings have seized your provinces in Asia. Your tribute from these provinces is at stake; the Roman

knights, who have devoted themselves to your interests in Asia, have begged me to report to you the state's danger and their own. If I say what ought to be discussed first, I shall speak of the nature of the war. Here let me warn you that you will not only lessen the glory of the Roman People, but will lose your most powerful allies. Desirous as you have been of (gaining) glory, how can you allow Mithradates, who ordered all Romans in Asia to be put to death, and whom you defeated in the previous war, to (continue to) rule? One must pardon your commanders because Mithradates has not received punishment fitted to his crimes, for (the interests of) the state called them home before he had been captured or slain. What did Mithradates then do? He prepared the greatest possible armies, and now is planning to wage war on you from two widely separated parts of the empire. In Spain, Pompey has already removed all danger from you. In Asia, Lucullus was doing the same, until summoned home. Should we not send Pompey to bring this war to an end?

MANILIAN LAW 5-7

254. To speak further of the nature of this war, consider how our ancestors punished those who treated our citizens abusively. Because the Greeks addressed our ambassadors too haughtily, war was waged on Corinth until it was destroyed. And yet you suffer Mithradates to deprive Roman citizens of life! Your friends and allies are driven from their kingdoms—all Asia is demanding aid from you, so great is the danger. They would ask of you, if it were allowed them, one leader of whose self-restraint they have often heard; but you have sent a different one. Yet this other leader, who is now close-at-hand, has already

checked the enemy's attacks (simply) by his [very] name. Think what is-at-stake. Consider how necessary it is to protect a province not merely from war, but even from fear of it, if you expect to enjoy the revenues from that province. All your tribute ceases while war is being waged. Even if you should gain a victory, the property of your tax-gatherers would be lost. Who then would farm your taxes? If you neglect the interests of these men, others will have no desire to invest in any of your provinces. For they would think that you will consider them of too little importance to defend [so little that you will not defend]. Consider also what would happen at Rome, how credit would fail and many be dragged to ruin.

MANILIAN LAW 8-9

255. Consider now the greatness of this measure. Do not scorn what I shall say. For although this war is not to be feared, yet you must undertake it with the greatest care. And do not think that great praise is not due Lucius Lucullus, a man of the greatest wisdom and valor. For although, when he arrived, Mithradates with large forces was besieging Cyzicus, that city was relieved by his efforts. If this same Lucullus had not overwhelmed and sunk that well-equipped fleet, it would already be blockading [shutting off from all access] Italy. That leader also captured the king's palaces, despoiled him of his ancestral kingdom, and drove him as a suppliant to other peoples. Have I given Lucullus sufficient praise? Has any one, even of his friends, or of those who oppose Manilius, bestowed like praise on him? Do you ask then how there can now be anything more to be done if Lucullus accomplished all this? Since the question is not unreasonable, you shall

learn. When our army was driving Mithradates from his kingdom they were delayed by the gathering of the booty. For all the silver and gold that Mithradates had heaped up in Pontus was left by him when he fled to the Armenian king. Although Lucullus defeated both Tigranes and Mithradates in Armenia, our soldiers sought rather a return from that remote place than a further advance. Since this time Mithradates has been gathering new forces, gaining new allies. I pass over that terrible disaster to us when he suddenly attacked our victorious army. At that crisis Lucullus was obliged to deliver the army to Manius Glabrio.

• MANILIAN LAW 10-12

256. Fellow-citizens, I have said enough in regard to the nature and greatness of this war. Let us now consider who is to be commander of interests [things] so great. Would that it were difficult because of an abundance of leaders for you to select one preëminently [especially] suitable! But of all your commanders one only, Gnaeus Pompey, possesses the necessary qualities of a leader. Consider his knowledge of the art of war—from earliest boyhood he was trained by the discipline of the camp. What wars has he not waged! If you should read of the various kinds, you would learn that he has been drilled in every one. Indeed, there is nothing in military experience that has escaped his knowledge. Is not his merit also equal to his knowledge (of war)? Indeed, he has such merits as none of your other leaders has had. If witnesses to this are sought, you must select them from a large number. For not only Italy and Sicily, which were freed from their enemies by his aid, but Africa, Gaul, and Spain, all saw him overthrow the numerous foes that oppressed

them. From him alone did every coast, every foreign nation seek aid, when the pirates held every harbor and no one dared sail except in winter. If you recall that widely scattered war, you will even now wonder how such a war could have been finished by one commander in one year. Yet Gnaeus Pompey in the fury of war passed over all coasts, all shores. By midsummer all the pirates had surrendered to his power. Besides, Cilicia had been added to the Roman dominion. No longer had we to fear that robbers would plunder our coasts, and even our harbors. And all this was accomplished by the valor of one man.

MANILIAN LAW 13-15

257. A finished commander must possess not merely valor but also blamelessness, self-control, and other qualities of like nature [like these]. You must consider the character of these virtues [what sort of virtues these are] in-the-case-of Gnaeus Pompey, for any one can recognize how (truly) great they are. In his army you do not hear of the buying and selling of centurionships [that the centurionship is bought¹ and sold]. If he had taken from the treasury money which the Senate had appropriated for the expense of war, and, as others have done, had kept it for himself or divided it among his (friends), already your murmurs would show [make] that you recall-it-to-mind. If you are angry with the generals who from avarice have done this thing, how much more must your foreign allies be alarmed, all of whose fields and towns have been pillaged by these same commanders! Because these remember what other leaders have done and know how self-restrained [of how great self-restraint] Pompey and his armies are, they regard him

¹ *ēmō*.

(as one) sent by the gods to free them from oppression [wrong].

They think that they see why their ancestors considered it more to their advantage to be servants of Rome than to have other nations as their tributaries. Such indeed is the courtesy of Gnaeus Pompey that even the private citizen dares enter complaint before him. Consider also how great is his prestige; for there can be no doubt that our enemies are influenced by this. How you have increased this by your decrees! When you filled the Forum to demand Pompey as commander for the war against the pirates, his fame penetrated to the most solitary shore of the world. When you appointed him commander of this war, prosperity came to Rome, and even the price of grain fell [the cheapness of grain followed]. Had he not been in Asia when we suffered that disaster in Pontus, you could not have checked Mithradates. Will he not then save Asia if you put him in charge (of the war)?

MANILIAN LAW 16-18

258. Is there need¹ of further examples to make clear how great Pompey's influence is among foreign nations? He was the only (man) to whom the Cretans would surrender, although he was far away, and another of your generals was even then in command of the army on the island of Crete. It happened that this same Mithradates increased Pompey's prestige, when he sent a messenger to him in farthest Spain. But come, let us consider his good-fortune. Because of this indeed, and not merely because of wise counsels and valorous-deeds, do we select commanders for our armies. For good-fortune seems to be

¹ Cf. 55.

given in-some-divine-manner by the gods. When we remember how great good-fortune Gnaeus Pompey has already had, may we not hope that in the future [remaining time] he will not be displeasing to the gods? Already even (the forces of) nature seem to have given obedience to his will. Had any one, before we saw what fortune the gods have granted this man, dared (even) silently to declare himself so endowed with honors, he would have been thought insolent. At home, in the field, everywhere,¹ all things have yielded to his wishes. Now as we cannot abandon our allies in this danger, and as you have a commander endowed with such virtues, will you not place him in charge of this war? Why must we choose another as commander, especially when Gnaeus Pompey is already in Asia with his army? And yet Quintus Hortensius, whose authority has always had the greatest weight with you, says that this is not the best (thing) to be done. He thinks you ought not to appoint the same (man) for all wars. If we had followed his advice when we were appointing Pompey commander against the pirates, even now we should be cut off from our provinces. How weak was the state of the Roman people, although-their [whose] ancestors had conquered all maritime nations, and adorned this place with the spoils of fleets, while we could not keep our own shores safe from robbers, — nay more, even feared to set forth from the city by the Appian Way. Ought we not to have been ashamed to mount this rostrum?

MANILIAN LAW 19-21

259. Had the Roman people then been persuaded by your views, Quintus Hortensius, rather than by their own

¹ *ubique*.

distress, we should not now be freed from all dangers on land and sea. And yet you declared with the best intentions what seemed to you to be for the safety of the state. Further, as Pompey demands that Aulus Gabinius shall be made his lieutenant, why should he not obtain from you a man suitable for defending your allies? By decrees of the Senate your other commanders have often received such lieutenants as they desired, to plunder your provinces. If the consuls hesitate to bring before the Senate the choosing of Gabinius as lieutenant, I myself will do so. Quintus Catulus, however, demands that you do nothing contrary to the precedent of your ancestors. You answered well when you said that, in case any misfortune should prevent Pompey from doing all you hoped he would accomplish, there was none so worthy of your trust as Quintus Catulus. And yet we must differ from this noble man, who has been of so great an influence for good in the state that we all believe in him and gladly listen to his advice. If I may call to mind the Carthaginian and the Spanish wars, you will remember that these were conducted by one man. Recently even the Senate decided that unless Gaius Marius was placed in command of all the forces of our land, there could be no hope of safety for the state. This same man both subdued Jugurtha and defended us from the Teutons. To pass by all others, even in the case of Gnaeus Pompey very many remarkable honors have been granted by decree of the Senate. It was indeed an unheard-of (event) that a knight should have a triumph at Rome, that a private citizen should be given a proconsulship. If these examples are not sufficient, remember how he was permitted to become consul before he had held any other office. And all these things, too, were done with the full consent of Catulus.

MANILIAN LAW 22-24

260. Such men should respect your judgment in regard to Gnaeus Pompey, especially since you have always approved their opinions concerning this same man. Did not many men cry out when you chose Pompey general in the maritime war? But did your judgment then bring safety or disaster to the state? Can they not see that they must sometimes yield to the will of the Roman people? Now especially you should have in Asia a commander of great self-restraint; for it is difficult to think of nothing save the state. The rich shrines and prosperous cities are so many in number that our generals have even sought a pretext [reason] for waging war. Why? Simply that they might plunder those intrusted to their care and become rich on the spoils of war. All this has been done to such an extent that we are bitterly hated by [in great hatred among] foreign nations. The complaints of your allies are known to Catulus and Hortensius. They know that the property of those cities and the royal treasure are so great and the ornaments of the shrines in Asia so rich that your other generals would not keep their hands from them. Do not then fear the threats of these men who, (although) endowed with the greatest talent, would dissuade you from sending [urge you not to send] Gnaeus Pompey to the Mithradatic war. Abide by your purpose. I promise to aid [be an aid to] you with this pretorian power, not that I expect to gain from this any defense against dangers or any assistance to (further) honors, but that I may place your advantage before my own. Therefore, fellow-citizens, appoint Gnaeus Pompey to the management of this war.

SPECIMEN COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS
IN LATIN PROSE COMPOSITION

AMHERST COLLEGE, 1897

While Caesar was thus engaged, he desired to know what was being done elsewhere. A message was brought to him from Titurius, whom he had *placed in command*¹ of the troops at the bridge: "The Belgians have changed their plan, and have come down to the river. I fear they will cross it at a *ford*² and thus attack us *in the rear*³." Caesar immediately dispatched his horse and *light troops*⁴ to prevent their carrying out this design. These *squadrons*,⁵ crossing the river by the bridge, reached the ford before the Belgians had passed it, and attacked them with their missiles while they were still *struggling*⁶ in the middle of the stream. Part of them who had already gained the opposite side were surrounded and *cut in pieces*⁷ by the cavalry. The Belgians *were forced*⁸ to retreat to their former encampment, where they heard that Divitiacus had entered their confines and was now wasting their homes with sword and fire. They therefore determined to abandon their *attempt*⁹ and to return each to defend his own land.

¹ praeficere.

² vadum.

³ a tergo.

⁴ miles expeditus.

⁵ turma.

⁶ impeditus.

⁷ trucidare.

⁸ cogere.

⁹ inceptum.

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE, 1897

He told me to buy him a horse for twenty minae, but said that he could not pay it now because his friend had not sent him the money that he needed. I am ashamed of my faults, but what business is that of yours? He was leaning on the table, when suddenly the table was moved, and he fell to the ground. I broke the window with a stone, but I cannot remember what I was trying to hit. All the world is full of good men, but the wicked seem to have the most pleasures.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, 1897

If I should say that I had done these things alone without the help of the gods, I should be beside myself. Does it not seem to have happened providentially that Lentulus was so foolish as to intrust the letters to the Gauls who, though they might have kept silent, nevertheless of their own accord offered us the proofs of Catiline's guilt?

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, 1897

1. All good citizens will obey the laws of the Roman people.

2. These brave men blocked the way of the enemy with their own bodies.

3. Before I set out from Rome, you returned to the city from Asia.

4. Take care that those who are absent may not have a place to which to return.

5. If he had known that you were to come to-day, he would have remained at Athens.

6. He said that he should have done this before setting out, but that he did not know how important it was.

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE, 1897

On the next day Caesar led out his forces from both (*uterque*) the camps, and advancing a short distance from the larger camp, he drew up his army and offered battle to the enemy. As soon as (*ubi*) he perceived that the enemy did not come out, he withdrew. Then Ariovistus sent a part of his troops to attack (*oppugnare*) the smaller camp, and a sharp battle was fought till evening (*vesper*). Then Caesar, calling a council, said that he should send out a detachment of cavalry (*ala*) to reconnoitre (*explorare*), and when they returned, he should order the soldiers to prepare (*corpora curare*) for an engagement.

HARVARD COLLEGE, 1897

Although only a small part of the summer was left, Caesar determined to cross into Britain, for he had observed that in nearly all the wars with the Gauls aid had been furnished to the enemy by the inhabitants of that island. Since, however, he could learn nothing from the Gauls about the nature of the island and of its people, and was afraid that some misfortune might happen to him if he acted incautiously, he sent a lieutenant to find out all he could about that portion of Britain which was nearest to Gaul.

In the meantime Caesar gathered together about eighty ships in which to carry across the troops if a favorable report was made by his lieutenant. When after five days

this officer had returned and reported all that he had seen, Caesar at once set sail with two legions of infantry and ordered the cavalry to follow with all possible speed.

The cavalry, however, waited more than five days before setting out and then proceeded so slowly that one battle had already been fought with the enemy before they came within sight of Caesar and the infantry.

PRINCETON COLLEGE, 1897

1. Although news of this was brought to Ariovistus, he told his men to wait until the enemy had crossed the river. Then, after he had incited his soldiers to the highest pitch of daring, he began the attack.

or,

The hostages told him that the enemies' camp was not far distant, and that only old men and boys were guarding it, and that if he chose to make an attack, in the absence of the soldiers, he could capture it quite easily.

2. It is worth my while, citizens, to undergo this outburst of unjust hatred provided the peril of this dreadful war be removed from you. Let people say that I have cast him out, if only he go into exile. But believe me, he is not going to go.

TUFTS COLLEGE, 1897

Marcellus was much stronger in infantry forces, for he had veteran¹ legions tried by many battles. Cassius relied more on the loyalty than on the bravery of his legions. So when Marcellus had seized a place suitable for a fort-

ress,² in order to cut off the followers³ of Cassius from water, Longinus, fearing that he might be confined by a sort⁴ of siege in regions hostile to himself, set out from his camp by night in silence, and hastened by a swift march to Ulia, a town which he believed to be faithful to him.

¹ veteranus.² castellum.³ Cassiani.⁴ genere quodam.

VASSAR COLLEGE, 1897

There are times when it is wrong to do things that ordinarily are fitting (*dignus*) for good men to do. For instance, if you have agreed to go and be an advocate for some one, and meanwhile your son falls ill, surely it is not shirking your duty not to do that which you said you would do. If this were not so, says Cicero, there would be no one who would dare make a promise; but, he adds, every man in deciding whether he ought to keep a promise or not must bear in mind this rule, that the lesser injury is to be preferred to the greater.

WELLESLEY COLLEGE, 1897

Render into Latin :

But the barbarians were not lacking in counsel. For through all the ranks (*tota acie*) their leaders gave the order (*pronuntiare jusserunt*) that "no one should quit his place; the booty was theirs, and for them was reserved whatever the Romans should leave; so then they should understand that all depended (*posita*) upon victory." In valor and numbers our men were their equals in the fight. Although they were deserted by their leader and by for-

tune, they yet placed all their hope of safety in valor, and as often as each cohort rushed forward, in that quarter great numbers of the enemy fell. When he perceived this, Ambiorix ordered his men to throw their weapons at a distance and not approach too near, and to fall back whenever the Romans made a charge.

Change from *indirect* to *direct discourse* :

Germanos neque priores populo Romano bellum inferre neque tamen recusare, si lacescantur, quin armis contentant, quod Germanorum consuetudo haec sit a majoribus tradita, quicumque bellum inferant, resistere neque deprecari. Haec tamen dicere : venisse invitos, ejectos domo ; si suam gratiam Romani velint, posse iis utiles esse amicos ; vel sibi agros attribuant, vel patiantur eos tenere quos armis possederint.

Change from *direct* to *indirect discourse* :

Alterum genus est eorum, qui, quamquam premuntur aere alieno, dominationem tamen expectant, rerum potiri volunt, honores, quos quieta re publica desperant, perturbata consequi se posse arbitrantur. Quibus hoc praecipendum videtur, unum scilicet et idem quod reliquis omnibus, ut desperent se id, quod conantur, consequi posse.

WILLIAMS COLLEGE, 1897

In the five-hundred-and-fortieth year after the founding of the city (*a condita urbe*) Paulus and Varro were sent against Hannibal. At a town called Cannae in Apulia a battle was fought, in which both consuls were defeated. The consul Paulus was killed, thirty senators were either

captured or slain, as well as three hundred nobles and forty thousand soldiers. Yet no Roman dared to speak of peace. Slaves were manumitted (*manumissi sunt*), a thing which had never been done before, and in this way the army was increased.

YALE COLLEGE, 1897

[Time allowed, 30 minutes.]

When the Romans reached Britain the barbarians, occupying the shore, hurled javelins at them and attempted to prevent them from disembarking (*ex nāvibus ēgredi*). The Romans, not accustomed to fight on ships, were terrified by this until (*donec*) Caesar ordered some of his ships to be stationed near the exposed flank of the enemy. Then the barbarians disturbed by the arrows and javelins retreated slightly (*paulum pedem referre*). While the Romans were still hesitating, the eagle-bearer¹ of the tenth legion, jumping (*se proicere*) into the sea, cried out, "Leap down (*desilire*), soldiers, unless you wish to betray your eagle to the enemy!" All immediately followed him and after a fierce conflict put the enemy to flight.

¹ "He who carried the eagle."

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, 1897

Elementary Prose Composition

Translate into Latin (marking all long vowels):

1. Ariovistus told Caesar that he (Ariovistus) had not crossed the Rhine of his own accord, but at the earnest entreaties of the Gauls, who were being hard pressed by their neighbors.

2. Moreover, he wanted to know what business Caesar had anyhow in his part of Gaul, which he had conquered in war.

3. Caesar replied: You do not think, do you, that I can permit the friends and dependents of the Roman people to be injured?

4. Can you not, therefore, be persuaded to send your forces home and not allow any more Germans to cross the Rhine?

5. Although Ariovistus spoke so boldly, yet he was afraid that Caesar would drive him out of Gaul.

Advanced Prose Composition

[Do not attempt to render the English into Latin word for word, but grasp clearly each thought, and consider what is the Latin way of expressing this thought.]

Translate into Latin (marking all long vowels):

Tullius sends greeting to Tiro:

I thought that I could bear your absence a little more easily than I do, but I do not bear it easily; and although it is of great importance to me to come to the city as soon as possible, still I seem to have done wrong in leaving you. But since it seemed to be your wish not to sail until your health was restored, I have approved of your plan. I have sent Mario to you with instructions that he is to come with you to me as soon as possible, or, if you remain for a time, that he is to return to me at once. But *be assured of this*,¹ that if it can be done with safety to your health, I prefer nothing more than that you should be with me.

If you sail at once, you will overtake us at Corcyra; but if you wish to *recover your strength*,² you will take good care to choose suitable weather and a suitable vessel. Give heed to one thing, Tiro: do not let the arrival of Mario and this letter disturb you. Take care especially of your health.

¹ hoc tibi persuade.

² te confirmare.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, 1897

Translate into Latin (if Latin word is unknown, indicate in blank space the case or the mood and tense required):

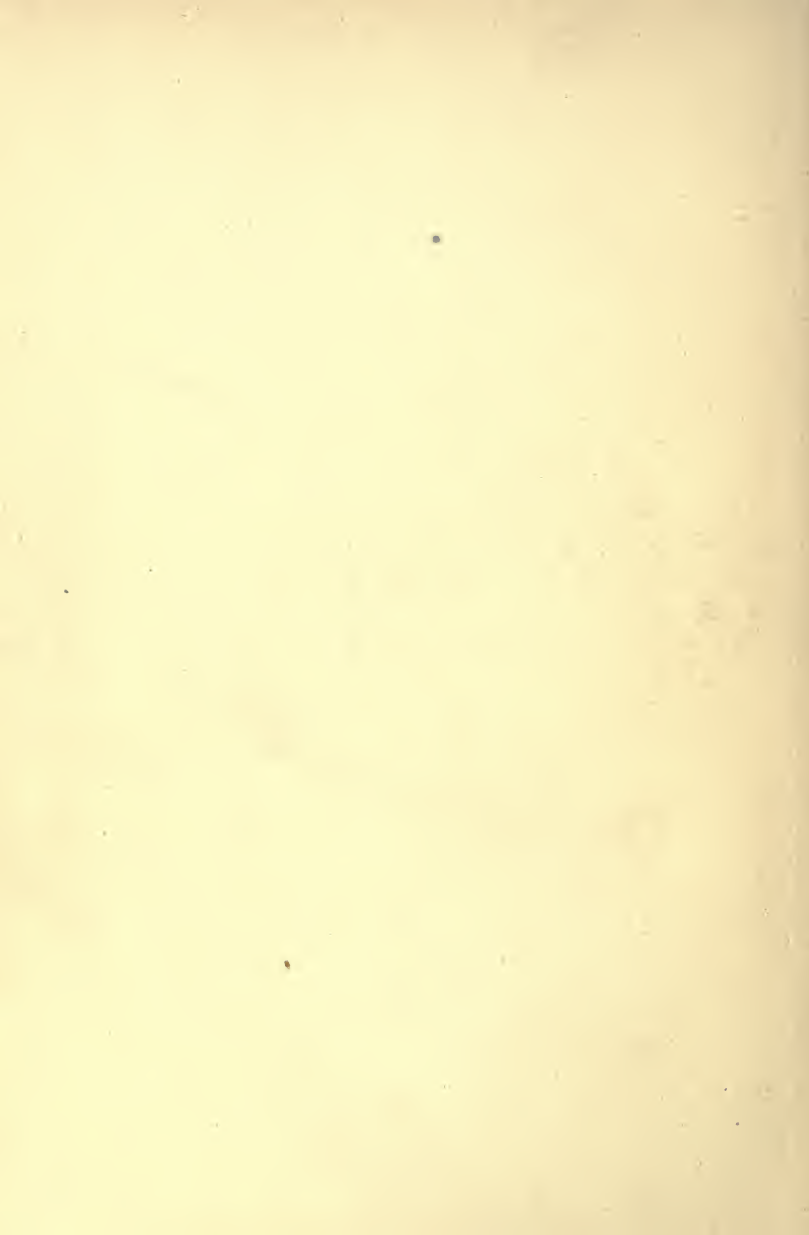
When Caesar made these inquiries (asked these things) of the envoys, he found that the Belgae long before had driven out the Gauls (use participial phrase) and that they were the only ones who had been able to prevent the Cimbri from entering (or invading) their country; that the Nervii, who were considered the fiercest among them, had promised fifty thousand armed-men for this war.

While Caesar was waiting for reinforcements, the Belgae attacked a walled town of the Remi, which was eight miles from the Roman camp. So Iccius sent a messenger to say that unless aid were given him, he would have to surrender the town. Caesar replied that he would send one legion to help the Remi because they had obeyed his orders.

LAT. PROSE COMP. — 10







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Latin prose composition
based on Caesar, Nepos,
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